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Planet Hunters: Assessing the *Kepler* Inventory of Short Period PlanetsMegan E. Schwamb^{1,2,3}, Chris J. Lintott^{4,5}, Debra A. Fischer⁶, Matthew J. Giguere⁶, Stuart Lynn^{5,4}, Arfon M. Smith^{5,4}, John M. Brewer⁶, Michael Parrish⁵, Kevin Schawinski^{2,3,7}, and Robert J. Simpson⁴

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ABSTRACT

We present the results from a search of data from the first 33.5 days of the *Kepler* science mission (Quarter 1) for exoplanet transits by the Planet Hunters citizen science project. Planet Hunters enlists members of the general public to visually identify transits in the publicly released *Kepler* light curves via the World Wide Web. Over 24,000 volunteers reviewed the *Kepler* Quarter 1 data set. We examine the abundance of $\geq 2 R_{\oplus}$ planets on short period (< 15 days) orbits based on Planet Hunters detections. We present these results along with an analysis of the detection efficiency of human classifiers to identify planetary transits including a comparison to the *Kepler* inventory of planet candidates. Although performance drops rapidly for smaller radii, $\geq 4 R_{\oplus}$ Planet Hunters $\geq 85\%$ efficient at identifying transit signals for planets with periods less than 15 days for the *Kepler* sample of target stars. Our high efficiency rate for simulated transits along with recovery of the majority of *Kepler* $\geq 4 R_{\oplus}$ planets suggest suggests the *Kepler* inventory of $\geq 4 R_{\oplus}$ short period planets is nearly complete.

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1. Introduction

In the past nearly two decades, there has been an explosion in the number of known planets orbiting stars beyond our own solar system, with over 700 extrasolar planets (exoplanets) known

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to date (Schneider 2011; Wright et al. 2011). While most early discoveries were made using the radial velocity method (Lovis & Fischer 2010 and references therein), the advent of large digital CCD-cameras has enabled astronomers to make effective use of the transit method, recording the dimming in light that is seen if a planet passes in front of its parent star as viewed from Earth. Ground-based transit surveys (Winn 2010 and references therein) have successfully detected the $\sim 1\%$ drop in flux due to Jupiter and Neptune-sized planets, but we have entered a new era of exoplanet discovery with the space-based *CoRoT* (Baglin 2003) and *Kepler* (Koch et al. 2010; Borucki et al. 2010b) telescopes surveying tens to hundreds of thousands of main sequence stars with photometric precision sufficient to observe the 0.0084% transit depth of an Earth-sized planet transiting a Sun-like star (e.g. Fressin et al. 2012).

Kepler is monitoring nearly continuously the brightness of more than 150,000 stars selected from a 115 deg^2 field in the constellations Cygnus, Lyra, and Draco with a 29.4 minute cadence. An automated routine, the Transiting Planet Search (TPS) algorithm (Tenenbaum et al. 2012; Jenkins et al. 2010b, 2002) searches the data for periodic signals which might indicate the presence of a planet. In order to avoid being swamped with false positives, TPS requires a phase-folded detection statistical confidence better than $7.1\text{-}\sigma$, a threshold chosen such that the entire set of *Kepler* observed stars could be searched within the first two years of the mission with less than one false positive transit detection owing to white noise (Jenkins et al. 2010b; Batalha et al. 2010b). Threshold-crossing events are further screened and those passing a series of data validation steps are assessed by members of the *Kepler* science team, including individual visual inspection of each candidate light curve (Wu et al. 2010; Batalha et al. 2010a). Those that pass become planet candidates promoted to *Kepler* Object of Interest status (KOI). The *Kepler* team’s detection and validation process have proved to be remarkably effective, producing more than 1235 planet candidates orbiting 977 stars (Borucki et al. 2011b) (which would double the number of known planets), including 170 multiple planet (multiplanet) systems (Lissauer et al. 2011), the first detection of Earth-sized planets (Fressin et al. 2012; Gautier et al. 2012), and the detection of unusual systems, such as the discovery of circumbinary planets (Welsh et al. 2012; Doyle et al. 2011).

Only a few percent of these candidate discoveries have been confirmed to date via radial velocity measurements, transit timing variations, or the statistical rejection of false positives that mimic transit signals (e.g. Fressin et al. 2012; Gautier et al. 2012; Borucki et al. 2012; Howell et al. 2012; Bonomo et al. 2012). The majority of the *Kepler* target stars are 12-16th magnitude, most too faint to enable efficient radial velocity follow-up of likely candidates using even the largest ground-based telescopes. The bulk of the KOIs will therefore likely remain unconfirmed. However, the *Kepler* planet candidate sample nonetheless allows a statistical assessment of the quality of the remaining candidates to be made, and for limits on the likely planetary population of the Milky Way to be derived. For example, a statistical analysis of *Kepler* candidates with periods of less than 50 days around Solar-type stars using a $10\text{-}\sigma$ signal detection threshold was performed by Howard et al. (2011). The frequency with which stars have planets is found to increase with orbital period and decrease with radius as expected from core accretion models. The effective temperature of the star

was also found to be an important factor, with cool stars more likely to host planets.

These results naturally depend on the performance of the *Kepler* transit detection and vetting processes. There remains a pressing need for an independent assessment of the ability of the combined automated TPS pipeline and data validation process to recover candidates. The *Kepler* light curves are complex, with many exhibiting significant structure which includes multiple oscillations as well as quasi-periodic oscillations and short-lived variations. Traditional transit searches and validation techniques looking for a periodic signal may potentially miss transit signals that are dominated by the natural variability of the star or the *Kepler* light curves may have artifacts or other systematics that might potentially compromise automatic fitting routines. We employ a novel method of searching for transit signals in the *Kepler* light curves via visual inspection. The human brain is a superb pattern recognition device and with minimal training can often outperform the most sophisticated machine learning devices and perform tasks not easily adapted to computer algorithms (Simpson et al. 2012; Khatib 2011; Dashti et al. 2010; Lintott et al. 2009, 2008; Méndez 2008). The detection of transits is essentially an exercise in pattern recognition, and is thus ideally suited to human classification. Transits that may be missed by traditional transit detection and vetting techniques may be identified by the human eye; highlighted by the serendipitous detection of a previously unknown transiting brown dwarf found by visual inspection of the *Kepler* light curves (Johnson et al. 2011).

While classifying light curves from 150,000 stars would be beyond any single classifier, by using the World Wide Web it is possible to gather multiple independent assessments of the same data set. This approach also allows for a careful analysis of the reliability of any individual classification. With Planet Hunters¹ (Fischer et al. 2012), part of the Zooniverse² collection of citizen science projects (Lintott et al. 2011, 2008), the *Kepler* light curves have been reviewed by eye for the signatures of extrasolar planets collectively by more than 173,000 volunteers to date with over 24,000 citizen scientists participating in the analysis presented here. Although novel in the search for exoplanets, human classification and crowd-sourcing citizen science have been applied to a wide range of astronomical applications including the morphological classification of galaxies (e.g. Lintott et al. 2011, 2008; Land et al. 2008), the search for supernovae (Smith et al. 2011), the identification of solar coronal mass ejections (Davis et al. 2012), cataloging of star forming regions (Simpson et al. 2012), and cratering counts on the Moon (Joy et al. 2011) in the Zooniverse suite of projects, as well as for discovery of solar grains entrapped in aerogel collected by the Stardust mission (Méndez 2008), and cratering counts on Mars (Méndez 2008).

The success of the Planet Hunters has already been demonstrated by Fischer et al. (2012), who report, in a preliminary search of *Kepler* Quarter 1 light curves, the discovery and follow-up of two new planet candidates which were not identified as planet candidates in the *Kepler* team’s analysis

¹<http://www.planethunters.org>

²<http://www.zooniverse.org>

of the first four months of *Kepler* observations. Transits in the light curves of KIC 10905746 and KIC 6185331 were detected by TPS but failed to pass the data verification stage and therefore not promoted to KOI status (Fischer et al. 2012). These discoveries, interesting in themselves, illustrate the desirability of an independent check on the *Kepler* team’s planet transit detection and validation scheme.

This paper presents an independent assessment of the *Kepler* planet inventory, examining the abundance of $\geq 2 R_{\oplus}$ planets on short period (< 15 days) orbits in the first 33.5 days of *Kepler* science observations (quarter 1), based on the classifications gathered from Planet Hunters. We detail how the classifications were obtained and processed and present our candidate detection scheme. We also assess the detection efficiency of the Planet Hunters project including a comparison to the *Kepler* inventory of planet candidates.

2. *Kepler* Quarter 1 Data

The *Kepler* Quarter 1 (Q1) dataset consists of observations for 156,097 stars spanning 2009 May 13–2009 June 15. The data were obtained from the *Kepler* Mission Archive³ hosted by the Multi-Mission archive at STScI (MAST⁴). The majority of the light curves used in our analysis are from the 2010 June 15 data release. A subset of Q1 targets, 5828 stars, had long cadence light curves publicly released after 2010 June. We obtained data for those stars from the 2011 February 2 release. Due to an error in uploading, five stars (KIC 8349808, 3656476, 6603624, 11446443 [KOI 1.01 (Tres-2, O’Donovan et al. 2006)], KIC 11026764), comprising $\sim 0.004\%$ of the total *Kepler* sample, were not included in this analysis.

Planet Hunters utilizes the long cadence observations from *Kepler* where measurements are effectively obtained once per 29.4-minute interval, presenting the scaled systematic error-corrected flux outputted by the *Kepler* science processing pipeline (Jenkins et al. 2010b). The flux values and uncertainties used correspond to the Pre-Search Data Conditioning (PDC) PDCSAP_FLUX and PDCSAP_FLUX_ERR, previously labeled AP_CORR_FLUX and AP_COR_ERR columns of the released *Kepler* FITS tables (Fraquelli & Thompson 2011). The PDC correction removes systematic effects and long term trends from the light curves. For further details of the *Kepler* Q1 observations and data processing we refer the reader to Borucki et al. (2011a) and Jenkins et al. (2010b,a).

³<http://archive.stsci.edu/kepler>

⁴<http://archive.stsci.edu>

3. Planet Hunters

The Planet Hunters interface presents the volunteer with a single 33.5-day Q1 light curve for a given star, plotting the star’s relative brightness (Figure 1). Error bars representing the 1-sigma measurement uncertainties are also displayed in the interface. The default setting is to show the entire 33.5 days at once. Volunteers have the ability to freely zoom the time axis or to scan the curve while zoomed in. A button allows the zoom on the y-axis (relative brightness) to automatically be adjusted to an appropriate level. The y-axis range spans from the minimum value to the mean level plus three times the standard deviation. The display is then adjusted to 5-85% of that range; this was found experimentally to produce a good result for the majority of curves.

Visitors to the Planet Hunters site can begin classifying almost immediately. Basic training is provided via an inline interface, accessible with a single click from the Planet Hunters home page. A sample light curve with example simulated transits is shown before volunteers can review real light curves. More detailed training material is also available elsewhere on the site. It is possible to train and then to take part in the project without registering a Zooniverse account, although volunteers who are not logged in will receive repeated reminders to register. The site is designed so that volunteers are unable to select which curve to classify in order to minimize the risk of deliberate manipulation of input data. Light curves are prioritized according to the stellar properties and previous classifications as described in Fischer et al. (2012). To ensure the volunteers have no prior knowledge about a given light curve that may effect their judgment, the KIC identifier is not revealed during classification; only an approximation of the star’s stellar temperature, radius, and magnitude are presented to the reviewer.

Classification proceeds via a decision tree, as detailed in Figure 2. The first series of questions produce a coarse categorization of the light curve’s variability which is primarily intended to assist in identifying transits and in identifying any gaps or defects in the light curve that may have been introduced during the PDC process, typically due to removing a cosmic ray event (Jenkins et al 2009). If the light curve has no visible gaps, volunteers are asked to categorize the star as ‘variable’ or ‘quiet’. If the star is deemed variable, the volunteer is further prompted to characterize the variability as: ‘regular’ (showing periodic repeating pattern), ‘pulsating’ (rapid variations observed in star’s brightness on the timescales of a few hours to days), or ‘irregular’ when no discernible pattern is seen. Representative light curves for each variability class are presented in Figure 3.

Volunteers are then asked to mark any transit features visible in the light curve. Clicking a button produces a box on the light curve (Figure 1) positioned in the center of the review interface which can then be moved and resized. If necessary, more than one box can be added to each curve, and transits marked in error can be removed. The current zoom level of the interface determines the default box size. The box width and height initially correspond respectively to 1/8th the x-axis range and half the y-axis range displayed. A second version of the interface, introduced on 2011 Jan 31, allows in addition for transit boxes of any size to be drawn directly onto the curve, without the need to click a button first. In the upgraded interface, if a transit box already exists

when the button to add a new transit box is clicked, a box with the same dimensions as the one previously made is generated. To aid in refining the transit box dimensions, with a single click the improved interface will automatically center on a selected transit box, zooming in to a width twice the size of the region highlighted by the specific transit box. Due to the way that transit boxes are presented on the screen, only approximately eighteen boxes can be placed without hiding the button to submit the classification, effectively creating a limit on the number of transits that can be identified. This issue only significantly affects the marking of transits from planets with orbital periods less than ~ 2 days.

Classifications are stored in a live Structured Query Language (SQL) database. For each entry question in the decision tree, the time stamp, user identification, light curve identifier, and response are recorded. If transit boxes are drawn, the position of the box center, width, and height of each box are recorded as well. Each of the 156,092 Q1 light curves is examined and classified multiple times, by normally 10 and at least 5 classifiers including both logged-in and unregistered users before being retired and removed from circulation. The variability and gap questions are only asked of those volunteers registered with a Zooniverse account; non-logged in classifiers are asked only to identify transit-like features. Before the first classification and subsequently after every 5 classifications, a non-logged classifier is reminded to create a Zooniverse account. If the user registers, subsequent classifications are attributed to the user in the classification database, but previously made classifications are labeled as from a non-logged in user.

Once the classification is submitted, the Planet Hunters internal designation for the light curve is revealed to the user. Classifiers are then asked if they would like to discuss the particular light curve on the Planet Hunters Talk site⁵. Each Q1 light curve has a dedicated page where users can write comments, add searchable Twitter-like hash tags, and link similar light curves together. This system is useful in identifying objects of particular interest and unusual light curves that are difficult to find via automatic classification schemes, a complement to the systematic analysis described here.

110,997(71%) of the *Kepler* Q1 light curves were completed with the original version of the interface and decision tree launched on 2010 December 16. We note that on 2011 Feb 1, the decision tree was modified for the inclusion of *Kepler* Quarter 2 data. All Quarter 2 light curves presented in the Planet Hunters interface have missing data gaps due to safe mode events or the *Kepler* spacecraft pointing towards Earth to transmit data. In the original interface, the light curve variability questions were skipped if the user had identified a gap in the light curve. The decision tree was modified such that if there was a gap in the light curve the variability questions would still be asked. In subsequent changes on 2011 March 9, the gap question was removed entirely. The responses to the gap question are not used in identifying possible planet candidates. 7,759 light curves received classifications after 2011 May 1 when the majority of the light curves presented

⁵<http://talk.planethunters.org> - The code is available under an open-source license at <https://github.com/zooniverse/Talk>

in the classification interface were Quarter 2 *Kepler* light curves. The appearance and quality of the Quarter 2 observations is different from that of Quarter 1 which may make Q1 light curves identifiable to more experienced users. We address the introduction of Q2 light curves on Q1 classifications and the impact of the interface modifications on the user responses and behavior in Appendix A.

3.1. Synthetic Transits

In order to characterize our detection efficiency, simulated transit events were injected into a subset of the *Kepler* light curves and presented on the Planet Hunters classification interface. Synthetic transit light curves were created from the Q1 light curves randomly sampling from the 156,097 publicly released long cadence light curves excluding known *Kepler* planet candidates (Borucki et al. 2011b), transit false positives (Borucki et al. 2011b), and known eclipsing binaries (Slawson et al. 2011; Prša et al. 2011) available online as of 2011 April⁶. A total of 6494 synthetic light curves were created. Simulations were divided into 7 radii bins from 2-15 R_{\oplus} and 6 orbital period bins between 0.5 and 15 days. Table 1 details the number of synthetic light curves generated for each radii and period bin.

Synthetic transit points are implanted into the *Kepler* light curve by subtracting the amount of flux decremented during the transit, following the equations of Mandel & Agol (2002) and Winn (2010) for transit depth and duration and assuming no limb darkening. We neglect inclination and eccentricity effects assuming circular edge on orbits as viewed from Earth. We do not adjust the measurement flux errors for data points implanted with the transit event, providing a conservative and slight overestimate of the Poisson measurement noise. The starting time of the first injected transit is randomly chosen between the starting time of the light curve and one orbital period later. Each simulation has at least two injected transits present in the light curve.

We adopt the stellar radii and surface gravity (i.e. $\log(g)$) values reported in the *Kepler* Input Catalog⁷ (KIC, Brown et al. 2011) to compute the stellar mass and the transit depth. The KIC uses multi-band color photometry to distinguish between main sequence dwarf and cool giant stars in the *Kepler* field. The KIC performs this task reasonably well with only a small fraction of the catalog estimated to be giants misidentified as dwarf stars (Brown et al. 2011; Koch et al. 2010). The KIC provides a first estimate of the stellar properties of the *Kepler* target stars, with $\log(g)$ reliable to within 0.4 dex with a 0.25 dex rms in comparison to high resolution spectra taken for a subsample of KIC stars (Brown et al. 2011). The reported uncertainty for the KIC stellar radii varies. Brown et al. (2011) note that subgiants misidentified as main sequences stars may have their radii underestimated by as much as a factor of 1.5-2. According to Howard et al. (2011), stellar radii

⁶<http://keplerebs.villanova.edu/>

⁷http://archive.stsci.edu/Kepler/Kepler__fov/search.php

are reliable within an rms of 35%, with Borucki et al. (2011b) quoting errors in stellar diameters as high as 25%. Verner et al. (2011) find that the KIC systematically underestimates stellar radii by as much as 50% for stars with radii less than $1 R_{\odot}$. Given this large uncertainty in the KIC values and differences in the reported error estimates, we assume the KIC is representative of the bulk properties of the *Kepler* stars and simply employ the KIC calculated stellar parameters in the same manner as other previous works (e.g. Howard et al. 2011; Borucki et al. 2011b; Latham et al. 2011).

The simulations are presented to logged-in users only and classified in the exact same manner as the real light curves. After the classification is submitted, the user is notified that the light curve was simulated with the injected transit points identified. We note that the simulations were classified on the Planet Hunters site after the completion of the majority of the Q1 light curves and were presented alongside the Quarter 2 light curves in the second version of the classification interface. Quarter 2 is substantially and notably different in data quality than Q1 (Christiansen et al. 2011). However, we expect these effects to be small and the complete simulation set to be a good test of volunteer behavior on the entire Q1 data set. We discuss the impact of these effects and detection efficiency further in Appendix A.

4. Selecting Transit Candidates

In this section we detail our algorithm for combining the individual classifications received for each light curve and the selection pipeline developed to produce a final catalog of transit candidates. Each light curve in our sample was examined and classified multiple times, with a minimum of 5 and a mean of 10 independent classifications. In total, 1,687,547 individual classifications were generated searching the Q1 data and examining the synthetic light curves. 24,300 registered volunteers made 98% of those responses, with the remaining 2% from unregistered volunteers. Figure 4 plots the distribution of user classifications for registered users. As is common for online projects (Zachte 2012; Crowston & Fagnot 2008), most volunteers typically classify only a few light curves, a median of 5 and mean of 68 light curves. 47% of logged-in users have classified fewer than 5 Q1 light curves. Only 10% of classifiers have made more than 100 classifications.

4.1. User Weighting

Rather than combining results from all classifiers equally in a majority vote, the first step in converting the raw classifications to transit candidates is to determine a user weighting. The weighting scheme distinguishes those classifiers who are more sensitive to identifying transits and less prone to providing false positives in order to consider their responses more heavily than others when selecting transit candidates. We evaluate the ability of each classifier and assign a weight based on their tendency to agree with the majority opinion and for those who classified the synthetic

light curves, on their performance identifying the simulated transit events. We follow a modified prescription developed by Lintott et al. (2008) and Land et al. (2008) for user weighting based on the visual morphological classifications of galaxies from the Galaxy Zoo project.

We assign user weights in a two stage process. Initially, all users start out equal, with a weight of unity. We then use the results of the synthetic light curves to seed the initial weighting for those users that classified a synthetic light curve. From the synthetic transits we have a direct evaluation of an individual user’s ability to identify transits for a given planet radii and orbital period. Only logged-in users are served synthetic light curves to classify. 6,307 (26% percent) of the registered Q1 volunteers examined at least one synthetic light curve. A median of 2 and a mean of 10 simulations were classified by those 6307 volunteers. For every synthetic light curve and classifier who viewed the simulation, we evaluate how well the user identified the injected transits events. The synthetic transit is deemed marked if the middle of the injected event is within one of the user boxes drawn. A given user-drawn box only counts once. If the user draws a single box around two simulated transits, credit is only given for successfully identifying one transit.

For each simulation a user classifies, his or her weight is incremented by the fraction of markable transits correctly identified. Typically the number of markable transits is the number of synthetic transits present in the light curve but for those few simulations with more than 18 transits (only 14% of the total) where marking more would cause the submit button to disappear effectively limiting the transits that can be identified, the maximum number of markable transits is set to 18, and the weight of any volunteer who correctly marked 18 or more transits is increased by one. If no synthetic transits are marked, the user weight is decreased by 0.2 times the fraction of the simulation’s classifiers who marked at least one transit on the simulated light curve. User weights are normalized such that the maximum user weight attainable, if all synthetic transits seen were identified correctly, is 2. Thus the weighting scheme rewards more heavily users who mark correctly the majority of the injected transits and down-weights users more significantly for missing easily identifiable transits and less so for harder to perceive transit depths.

At this point, user weights have only been modified for those logged-in users who have classified at least one synthetic light curve. All other registered volunteers still have an initial user weight of 1. We next use an iterative scheme to assign weightings to all users based on the responses for all the real Q1 light curves. We divide user responses into two classes: ‘transit’ or ‘no transit’ based only on whether or not a user drew a transit box. For a given *Kepler* star i and for each class j , a score $s_i(j)$, is then calculated. We define $s_i(j)$ as:

$$s_i(j) = \frac{1}{W_i} \sum_k w_k \quad k=\text{users who voted } j \text{ for light curve } i \quad (1)$$

where W_i is the sum of the users weights for all the users who classified light curve i . We then update w_k , the weight of user k based on the calculated light curve transit scores ($s_i(j)$). A user whose behavior is in line with the majority weighted vote will be rewarded and up-weighted, whereas those that disagree with the majority opinion will be down-weighted. We adjust w_k as

follows:

$$w_k = \frac{A}{N_k} \sum_i s_i(j \text{ for light curve } i \text{ chosen by user } k) \quad i = \text{all light curves reviewed by user } k \quad (2)$$

where N_k is the number of Q1 light curves classified by user k , and scaling factor A is chosen to be such that the mean user weight remains at 1.

The light curve scoring and updating of the user weights is iterated until convergence is achieved, when the median absolute difference between the old and updated user weights is less than or equal to 1×10^{-4} . Classifications from non-logged in users are included in the weighting scheme to calibrate the other logged-in users but all non-logged in users are effectively treated in the weighting scheme as a single user with an unchanging weight of 1. All users have final weights greater than zero with 55% of the logged-in users having values greater than or equal to 1. The final distribution of user weights is plotted in Figure 5.

4.2. Candidate Selection

Once a user weighting solution has been found, the Q1 light curves are searched for transit candidates. In this analysis, our search focuses on the identification of planet candidates with radii greater than $2 R_\oplus$ and orbital periods less than 15 days. From this point forward, the synthetic light curves are treated in exactly the same as the real *Kepler* light curves. Table 2 summarizes the candidate selection process and the number of light curves and simulations remaining at each step.

4.2.1. Transit Score

We use the ‘transit’ scores, $s_i(\text{transit})$, for each of the *Kepler* light curves as a measure of the light curve’s likelihood to have a planet transit. Each synthetic light curve is scored using the previously calculated user weights to determine $s_i(\text{transit})$. We plot the cumulative distribution of transit scores for the Q1 *Kepler* light curves and simulations in Figure 6.

We aim to include as many possible transit candidates without the number of false positives light curves overwhelming the list. A cut in $s_i(\text{transit})$ is made to create the initial list of potential transit candidates. This threshold was chosen after visual inspection of a random subset of the remaining light curves and light curves with transit-like events detailed in Fischer et al. (2012) previously found during a preliminary search through the Q1 data set. The science team found that at $s_i(\text{transit}) = 0.5$ the false positives were overwhelming the number of candidate transit detections. Therefore we select our potential planet candidates as those light curves with $s_i(\text{transit}) > 0.5$. 5,511 (3.5%) of the *Kepler* light curves have $s_i(\text{transit})$ greater than 0.5.

4.2.2. Removing Single Transit Events

We restrict our search to transiting planets with periods less than 15 days where there will be at least two transit events present in Q1. The 50% transit score threshold only discriminates between the likelihood of the light curve having a transit or not, and is not dependent on the number of transits present in the light curve. There will inevitably be light curves with single transit-like events due to longer period transiting planets (orbital periods greater than 15 days) and primary transits from eclipsing binaries with orbital periods greater than 15 days where the secondary eclipse will occur in future quarters of *Kepler* data. We remove the most obvious of these single transit-like events from our candidates list, discarding light curves where a single transit box was drawn by all classifiers who identified transits. Of the 5,508 candidates, 570 light curves were removed by this cut. These cut light curves were separately analyzed for potential transits and the first candidates from that analysis are further discussed in Lintott et al. (2012).

4.2.3. Light Curve Variability

Visual inspection of the remaining candidate light curves revealed that a significant portion were pulsators, light curves which exhibit rapid variations in the star’s brightness on the timescales of a few hours to days. Many classifiers mistook the individual pulsations for transits. To further cull the candidates list of these false positives, we assess the light curve variability on timescales less than 33 days, placing a more stringent transit score threshold for the pulsating light curves.

While classifying, users are asked to broadly characterize the observed variability of the Q1 systematic error-corrected light curves as described in Section 3. We note this may not reflect a true assessment of the stars’ intrinsic astrophysical variability. The Pre-Search Data Conditioning (PDC) applied to the raw *Kepler* light curves may remove real astrophysical signals from, and potentially inject high-frequency signals, into the light curves when correcting for instrumental systematics and optimizing the light curves for transit detection (van Cleve 2010; Jenkins et al. 2010b). The Planet Hunters variability assessment serves as an evaluation of the bulk properties of the Q1 light curve sample rather than the properties of individual *Kepler* target stars.

We first group the light curves into quiet and variable classes, then further subdividing the variable stars into pulsating, regular, and irregular. We combine together the multiple user classifications by simply taking the majority, selecting the variability class with the highest fraction of votes. If the light curve has less than 3 classifications or a majority is not reached, we deem the light curve unclassified. Table 3 summarizes the variability properties of the Q1 light curves based on Planet Hunters classifications. The majority of the *Kepler* light curves, 65.6% are quiet with the bulk of the variable stars being classified as pulsators (48.9% of variable light curves, 16.5% of the full sample).

The majority answer does not necessarily mean the proper identification of the light curve’s

variability. Little direct instruction is provided to the user when categorizing the light curve’s variability. The inline tutorial does not address the variability questions asked in decision tree, instead focusing on the identification of planet transits, but there are prototypes for each variability class in the help material that is accessible to the user by a single click during classifying. McQuillan et al. (2012), Ciardi et al. (2011), and Basri et al. (2010) assess the photometric variability of the Q1 dataset to which we can compare. McQuillan et al. (2012) and Basri et al. (2010) examine the raw pre-PDC processed light curves applying their own methods to remove systematic effects while preserving stellar variability signals, and Ciardi et al. (2011) examine the of variability the post-PDC processed light curves. Because users classify the PDC light curves, we choose to evaluate the reliability of the Planet Hunters assessments for the *Kepler* Q1 dataset with Ciardi et al. (2011), where we can make a direct comparison.

Ciardi et al. (2011) divide the variability from a sample of 126,092 dwarfs and 17,129 giants using a reduced chi-squared threshold of 2. Although Ciardi et al. (2011) group the light curves by spectral type and into dwarfs or giants, we report the total fractions for the entire sample. In Table 4 we compare the variability fractions from the Ciardi et al. (2011) to this work. Like Ciardi et al. (2011) we only examine stars that have KIC entries for radius and temperature. We observe the same trend of light curve variability decreasing with increasing magnitude with 49.6% of stars with instrumental magnitudes less than 14 in our sample deemed variable. This is to be expected as measurement precision is highest for the brightest stars in the sample.

The variability fractions of the light curves with transit scores greater than 0.5 are detailed in Table 5. Only 497, or 10%, of the candidate light curves had too few classifications to secure variability identifications. The pulsators are overrepresented in the candidates, composing 36% the sample, nearly double the amount in the entire sample as a whole, confirming the results from visual inspection of the candidates. It is not surprising that the largest source of false positives in our candidates list would be due to pulsators. With the user classifications producing an accurate picture of Q1 light curve variability, we can use the Planet Hunters variability identifications to place a more stringent threshold for pulsators and remove pulsator light curves with transit scores less than 0.8 from the remaining list of planet candidates. Of the 4938 candidates, 1534 light curves were removed by this variability cut.

4.2.4. Round 2 Review

After the series of cuts described above, 3404 candidate light curves and 4974 simulations remain, including a mixture of eclipsing binaries (Slawson et al. 2011; Prša et al. 2011), *Kepler* planet candidates (Borucki et al. 2011b), transit false positives, and potentially previously unidentified planet candidates. Planets with periods less than 15 days will have at least two transits during the Q1 observations. In the analysis presented here, we are only interested in those light curves with two or more identified transits. The current selection criteria only determine whether or not transits are likely to present in a given light curve, not identifying the number of visible transits

found by the Planet Hunters classifiers. In order to sort through the remaining list of candidates and identify those light curves with at least two transits, a second classification interface was built and second round of review performed.

In this simplified interface, the full 33.5-day light curve is plotted with the same horizontal and vertical range as presented in the main classification interface. To assist the reviewer, the positions of all the user-drawn transit boxes are overlaid on the light curve in blue such that regions where there is more overlap between the transit boxes are shaded darker. Reviewers can toggle on and off the plotting of the transit box locations with a click of a button. The light curve is presented as a static image; Round 2 reviewers are not able to zoom in or adjust the resolution of the light curve like the main classification interface. Both real and simulated light curves are presented and reviewed blindly by the screeners. Unlike the main classification interface, simulated light curves are not identified after classification.

Screeners for the Round 2 review were recruited from the Planet Hunters Talk site and through a blog post. These volunteers are asked if the presented light curve has two or more transits. The volunteer has three possible responses: ‘yes’, ‘no’, or ‘maybe’. In Round 2, the reviewers are not asked to determine whether the transits are due to a single planet or to identify possible secondary eclipses within the light curve. Instead we instruct the user to ignore whether the transits have the same depth in the tutorial information and ask them to focus only on the number of transit-like events identifiable in the light curve.

Round 2 review was performed in two stages; the first in September 2011 and the second in February 2012. A much smaller number of classifiers examined the light curves in Round 2 review interface compared to the total number of individuals who reviewed Q1 light curves and simulations in the main Planet Hunters interface. 137 volunteers participated in Round 2 review. Every candidate light curve and simulation received at least 5 and an average of 9 independent classifications. A total of 75,291 classifications were made in the Round 2 review interface with volunteers examining an average of 550 and median of 75 light curves and simulations. The majority of Round 2 classifiers are experienced users, having classified a median number of 177 Q1 classifications, with 55% of the Round 2 reviewers having classified more than 100 Q1 light curves and simulations. Only 25 of the Round 2 reviewers had not previously classified a Q1 light curve. 72% of the classifiers have user weights greater than or equal to 1; therefore, we choose to simply tally the number of responses for each answer choice (‘yes’, ‘no’, ‘maybe’). If the candidate light curve received a majority of ‘yes’ votes, the light curve is passed on for further review and scrutiny by the Planet Hunters science team.

4.3. Planet Candidates

In total 1220 light curves, 0.78% of the Q1 light curves, were passed on for further inspection. We note one light curve, KIC 8953426, which is a known eclipsing binary (Slawson et al. 2011;

Prša et al. 2011), did not receive Round 2 review due to a processing error but was passed on with the other remaining candidates to inspection by the Planet Hunters science team. At this stage, we identify and remove reported eclipsing binaries (Slawson et al. 2011; Prša et al. 2011), sources with an eclipsing binary contaminating the aperture listed in Slawson et al. (2011), and additional planet transit false positives identified by Borucki et al. (2011b) and Fischer et al. (2012). Those remaining which are not listed as KOIs as of February 2011 (Borucki et al. 2011b) are visually inspected.

The Planet Hunters science team reviewed the 75 remaining light curves, first verifying there were at least two transits present in the light curve. For those candidates with multiple transits visible, the Quarters 2-6 light curves were next inspected to confirm repeat transits in subsequent quarters. We note that Quarters 2-5 light curves are currently being analyzed by the Planet Hunters community. Odd/even transits were checked for depth to remove obvious unlisted eclipsing binaries. We also examined the Kepler target stars surrounding each of the remaining light curves for nearby eclipsing binaries that could be contaminating the photometric aperture and mimicking transit-like signals in the candidate light curve. If the transit times are correlated with that of a known eclipsing binary light curve in the vicinity or after examination of the individual pixel by pixel light curves for the star with PyKE⁸ it can be seen that only a small subset of pixels exhibit the transit features, the candidate is deemed a false positive. Table 6 details the outcome of the review. 23 sources, including a known RR Lyrae star (KIC 6186029, Benkő et al. 2010), did not have two or more visible multiple transit-like events in the Q1 light curve or were data processing glitches. 18 light curves did not have repeats in subsequent quarters of data, and 27 light curves have alternating transit depths indicating they are likely to be previously unknown eclipsing binaries or have transits correlated with an nearby eclipsing binary contaminating the photometric aperture. This left only 7 surviving candidates (KIC 551108, 6616218, 8240797, 9729691, 10905746 11017901, 11551692) from our review not identified as KOIs in the *Kepler* analysis of Quarters 0-2 (Borucki et al. 2011b). All 7 candidates have been subsequently identified in later runs of an updated version of TPS and data validation pipeline (Tenenbaum et al. 2012) and promoted to KOI status by the *Kepler* team during a multi-quarter TPS analysis of Quarters 1-6 and data validation using products from Quarters 1-8 (Batalha 2012- private communication, Batalha et al. 2012). Additionally KIC 5511081, 6616218, 8240797, 9729691, 11551692 have been subsequently identified by the *Kepler* team as multiplanet systems with at least one $\geq 1.9R_{\oplus}$ planet candidate orbiting the host star in less than 15 days.

All seven light curves are plotted in Figures 7 and 8. In Figure 9 we provide a zoom-in of a chosen transit for each set of transits identified in the 7 light curves. Visually the science team could identify two separate sets of repeating transits in the mutli-planet KIC 8240797, 9729691, and 11551692 based on the user drawn boxes. We note that KIC 10905746 is a short period planet candidate first reported by Fischer et al. (2012), found in a preliminary search of the Planet Hunters Q1 classifications. The second planet candidate reported by Fischer et al. (2012) was not in this

⁸<http://keplergo.arc.nasa.gov/PyKE.shtml>

analysis since it has a period of 40 days with only a single transit in Q1. Additionally KIC 5511081 was also identified as a planet candidate by Planet Hunters in an preliminary search of Q2 data as reported by Lintott et al. (2012) and Batalha et al. (2012).

We do not specifically know the reasons why each of the 7 light curves failed to be promoted to KOI status in (Borucki et al. 2011b). All 7 light curves were flagged as having potential transits with the multi-quarter TPS analysis of Quarters 1-3 (Tenenbaum et al. 2012), but this version of TPS was used to create the Batalha et al. (2012) candidate list and was not implemented during the (Borucki et al. 2011b) candidate selection. The Borucki et al. (2011b) version of TPS identified transits in individual quarters. Fischer et al. (2012) report that KIC 10905746 was identified by TPS but the automatic light curve fitting failed to converge to a solution and the star was rejected. 4 of the 7 systems have two transiting planets with periods less than 15 days, this may have been an additional factor. Regardless, for the exact reason these candidates were not initially identified, they are now KOIs by the multi-quarter TPS and upgraded data validation scheme detailed in Batalha et al. (2012) and Tenenbaum et al. (2012). The lack of any other additional candidates not currently KOIs highlights the effectiveness of the *Kepler* detection scheme and the increased detection efficiency from improvements to the *Kepler* detection pipelines.

5. Detection Efficiency

In this section, we discuss the detection efficiency of Planet Hunters for finding short period planets with radii larger than or equal to $2 R_{\oplus}$ and periods less than 15 days. We first assess the performance based on the detection of our sample of simulated transit light curves and then compare to the known sample of *Kepler* planet candidates. We explore the potential biases that may effect user responses and behavior and their impact on the calculated detection efficiency in Appendix A.

5.1. Synthetic efficiency

Simulations were processed and screened by Planet Hunters users in a similar manner to the real *Kepler* light curves, and Table 2 summarize the simulation light curves that were retained at each stage in the planet candidate selection process. Those synthetic light curves that survived the transit score threshold, the single transit removal step, and the variability cut were shown in the Round 2 review. The simulations were shown with real light curves and at this stage users were not notified which light curves had injected transits or which ones were real *Kepler* light curves.

To estimate the detection efficiency, we bin the simulations into the same radii and period bins used to generate the light curves. Figure 10 (with Poissonian 68% errors as prescribed by Kraft et al. 1991) and Table 7 present the recovery rates for the 6494 generated synthetic light curves. We deem a simulation recovered if the synthetic light curve successfully passed Round 2

review stage. We find that greater than or equal to $4 R_{\oplus}$, independent of orbital period, Planet Hunters is $\geq 85\%$ efficient at detecting short period planet transits. The detection efficiency begins to drop at $3\text{--}4 R_{\oplus}$ to 75% and for the $2\text{--}3 R_{\oplus}$ bin 40% of the synthetic light curves were recovered. For the larger planet radii bins in Figure 10, the majority of the missed simulations were around $\geq 2 R_{\odot}$ stars where the transit depths are as low as those for $< 3 R_{\oplus}$ planets around solar radii stars. For all the radii bins, the detection efficiency was relatively insensitive to orbital period. We note that we injected into a random sampling from the Q1 light curves including giant stars, thus our synthetic recovery rate represents the Planet Hunters detection efficiency for the overall *Kepler* target star sample.

We find that our detection efficiency is independent of the number of transits present in the light curve. Classifiers are just as likely to identify and mark transits in a light curve if there are 2 or 18 transits visible. With our detection efficiency independent of orbital period, we can examine the recovery rate as a function of the relative transit depth for the synthetic light curves. The transit depth is the true observable in the light curve, depending on both the planet radius and radius of the host star. Figure 11 presents the recovery rate of synthetic light curves as a function of the relative transit depth of the injected transits binned with a bin size of 3×10^{-4} for transits with depths less than 0.005. We find as expected, detection efficiency drops at small transit depths. Beyond a relative depth of 0.0013 (relative transit depth of a $\sim 4 R_{\oplus}$ planet around $1 R_{\odot}$ star), nearly all the simulated light curves are recovered. 3326 (97%) of the 3417 synthetic light curves generated with transit depths larger than 0.0013 pass the candidate selection process and Round 2 review.

5.2. Comparison with the *Kepler* Planet Candidates

A natural comparison to make is to the known list of KOIs identified by the *Kepler* team’s detection scheme. Our candidate detection scheme was not tested or tuned to specifically identify known *Kepler* planet candidates. Thus we can use the population of known KOIs to serve as an additional check of the Planet Hunters detection sensitivity. We divide the KOIs into the same 7 radii bins ranging in $2\text{--}15 R_{\oplus}$ and 6 orbital periods bins between 0.5 and 15 days as used to generate the synthetic light curves. Of the 1235 KOIs identified in the first two quarters of *Kepler* observations, 408 planet candidates are associated with multi-transit systems by (Borucki et al. 2011b). Very few of the multiplanet systems satisfy our criteria where we can be certain a single set of transits in Q1 were identifiable to a Planet Hunters classifier, therefore we restrict our analysis to only those currently identified to reside in single planet systems by Lissauer et al. (2011). 330 KOIs fit our criteria and are used in our analysis presented here. We note that KOI 01.01 was missing from our Q1 sample of light curves and was not examined by Planet Hunters classifiers.

Figure 12 plots the Planet Hunters efficiency for the *Kepler* sample of short period planets. Error bars are taken as the Poissonian 68% uncertainty (as prescribed by Kraft et al. (1991)) for the value in each radii/period bin. The number of planet candidates and the number recovered by

Planet Hunters is reported in Table 8. The KOI was deemed detected if it passed the Round 2 review process. Fischer et al. (2012) had visually inspected the classifications from the 306 *Kepler* planet candidates announced by Borucki et al. (2010a) finding that 2/3rds of the 1371 transits with planet radii between 1 and 10 R_{\oplus} were flagged by Planet Hunters users with only 10% of transit boxes marking spurious detections. From the past visual inspection and low spurious detection rate, we are therefore confident that at least one of the appropriate KOI transits in each of the Planet Hunters candidate KOI light curves was identified. We note that majority of our comparison sample of KOIs are lost due to the transit score threshold cut with Round 2 review eliminating only 21 light curves and the pulsator variability removing only 2 KOIs.

Although the error bars are large, we find that above 4 R_{\oplus} , Planet Hunters is $> 80\%$ efficient at identifying transits. We also observe the same trend observed in the simulations. Less than 4 R_{\oplus} the detection efficiency drops with a 20% reported efficiency for the 2-3 R_{\oplus} KOIs. Beyond 4 R_{\oplus} , the KOI recovery rates are in agreement with the detection efficiency measured for the injected transits. Additionally we see the same result we reported for the simulated transits, the detection efficiency is relatively insensitive to the number of transits present in the light curve. The largest discrepancy occurs in the 2-3 R_{\oplus} bin, where only 20% of the *Kepler* planet candidates are recovered. 40% of the simulated 2-3 R_{\oplus} light curves were identified by Planet Hunters classifiers.

5.3. 2-3 R_{\oplus} Detection Efficiency

To further explore this discrepancy between the KOI recovery rate and the synthetic detection efficiency in the 2-3 R_{\oplus} bin, we examine the detection efficiency as a function of relative transit depth for the 144 *Kepler* and 1799 synthetic 2-3 R_{\oplus} light curves. We expect that if the classifiers are able to detect a transit of a given depth from the Planet Hunters simulations, they should equally be able to detect a KOI of similar transit depth. The detection efficiency for the 2-3 R_{\oplus} simulated light curves as a function of relative transit depth is plotted as Figure 13. As expected if the Planet Hunters classifiers are marking transits and not spurious features in the light curves, detection efficiency decreases with decreasing transit depth. Higher efficiencies are seen for transits with larger depth for both the simulations and the KOI distribution.

We test if there are any significant differences between the detection sensitivity for the synthetic distribution and that obtained from the *Kepler* planet candidates. We bin the 2-3 R_{\oplus} *Kepler* KOI and synthetic samples into transit depth bins of 1.5×10^{-4} in size. We generate 100,000 ‘synthetic KOI’ distributions by randomly selecting from the larger synthetic light curve population, the same number of simulations as there are real 2-3 R_{\oplus} *Kepler* KOIs in each transit depth bin. For each ‘synthetic KOI’ sample generated, we determine which of the synthetic light curves were correctly identified as having transits by Planet Hunters. We then total the number of simulations recovered by Planet Hunters in each bin for the sample and compare with a chi-squared test to the binned histogram of Planet Hunters recovered real 2-3 R_{\oplus} *Kepler* KOIs. We find there is no significant difference between the synthetic distribution and that obtained for the *Kepler* planet candidates.

Of the 100,000 ‘synthetic KOI’ samples, 81.9% percent can be rejected as being drawn from the same population as the recovered KOIs at a significance greater than 68%, with only 9.6% rejected at the 95% confidence level. Therefore at the two-sigma level, the recovery rates for the *Kepler* KOIs and synthetic transits as a function of relative transit depth are consistent.

Nonetheless, when we plot the distribution of detected simulations and *Kepler* candidates as a function of radius, we do see significant differences. We use the Kuiper variant of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test, as detailed in Press et al. (1992), to compare the 2-3 R_{\oplus} KOI transit depth distribution to that of the synthetic population. The significance of the computed D statistic is found by performing 10,000 realizations of the KS test by randomly selecting the number of real KOIs from the simulated transit depth distribution and comparing to the full simulated sample and computing the fraction of instances where the computed D statistic was higher than the D statistic measured for the real KOI distribution. We find the hypothesis that both synthetic and KOI distributions are drawn from the same distribution can be rejected at the 99.98% confidence level. As sensitivity to transit depth is the same in both cases, the discrepancy in the recovery rate at the 2-3 R_{\oplus} bin, can then be attributed to differences in relative transit depth distribution between the two samples.

The depth of the transit is the squared ratio between the planet and stellar radii, and the simulations randomly sample the *Kepler* target stellar population and have a uniform distribution of planet radii between 2 and 3 R_{\oplus} bin. If there is a significant difference in the distribution of stellar radii and planet radii for the 2-3 R_{\oplus} KOIs this would explain the difference in the distributions. A 2-dimensional KS test (Press et al. 1992; Peacock 1983) of the real and simulated population’s planet radii and stellar radii distributions rules out at greater than the 95% confidence level that the two populations are compatible. The significance of the D statistic is estimated in the same manner for the 1-dimensional case, drawing 144 planets and their associated host star radii randomly from the synthetic population and comparing to the parent synthetic population 10,000 times and calculating the fraction of instances where the computed D statistic was higher than the D statistic measured for the real KOI distribution. Our simulation population fundamentally differs from the true underlying planet population, producing different transit depth distributions.

The KOI planets are skewed towards smaller radii than the simulations. Additionally the KOI stellar radii are also slightly shifted towards lower radii compared to the simulations. These differences likely are representative of the true underlying planet population and formation environments. Though we note that any selection effect in *Kepler* candidate selection, systematic errors in planet radii or stellar radii estimations would shift the planet radius distribution.

6. Conclusions

This paper presents results from our analysis of the first 33.5 days of *Kepler* science data, focusing on the detection via transits of planets larger than or equal to 2 R_{\oplus} with orbital periods

shorter than 15 days. We use a set of 1,687,547 classifications provided by more than 24,000 citizen scientists using the Planet Hunters interface, we have performed a systematic search for short period planet candidates. After vetting 75 potential candidates identified via the Q1 classifications that were not identified as KOIs in Borucki et al. (2011b) with an examination of all currently available Kepler public data (Quarters 1-6), we find seven candidate light curves (KIC 551108, 6616218, 8240797, 9729691, 10905746 11017901, 11551692) not listed as planet candidates by Borucki et al. (2011b) during the initial search of the first four months of Kepler observations but were identified in search of the first 16 months of *Kepler* data (Batalha et al. 2012) with an improved pipeline. KIC 11017901 was previously discovered and characterized by (Fischer et al. 2012) and the remaining six additional candidates have been identified as containing at least one $\geq 1.9 R_{\oplus}$ planet candidate with transits repeating less than 15 days in later runs of the *Kepler* pipeline searching Quarters 1-6 (Batalha et al. 2012; Lintott et al. 2012). All seven candidates require additional follow-up observations to confirm their planetary nature. No additional candidates not listed as a KOI were found.

Using synthetic planet transits inserted into the data and the known *Kepler* sample of short period planet candidates, we have measured the detection efficiency of human classifiers to identify planet transits in the *Kepler* Q1 light curves. Although performance drops rapidly for smaller radii, $\geq 4 R_{\oplus}$ Planet Hunters is $\geq 85\%$ efficient at identifying transit signals for planets with periods less than 15 days for the *Kepler* sample of target stars. For 2-3 R_{\oplus} planets, the recovery rate for < 15 day orbits drops to 40%. Our high recovery rate of both $\geq 4 R_{\oplus}$ simulations and KOIs and the lack of additional candidates not recovered by the improved *Kepler* TPS and data validation routines and procedures suggests the *Kepler* inventory of $\geq 4 R_{\oplus}$ short period planets is nearly complete.

Although our search was not specifically developed and optimized for identifying eclipsing binaries in the Q1 *Kepler* sample, we can comment on the *Kepler* team’s detection efficiency for the catalog of detached eclipsing binaries with orbital periods < 15 days (Slawson et al. 2011; Prša et al. 2011). Our detection scheme is highly sensitive to finding detached eclipsing binaries where the separation distance between the two stars is much larger than their stellar radii, and the light curve has clearly defined and separated primary transits and secondary eclipses. Only in our final stage of candidate selection, after Round 2 review, are the transit depths considered; any potential new eclipsing binaries would be found during the science team review. Even for those light curves where the secondary eclipse is relatively obscured due to the vertical scaling needed to display the primary transit, the Planet Hunters volunteers would have marked the primary transit and in the final review stage the light would have been identified as an eclipsing binary. Most of the possible eclipsing binaries appear to be blends with a nearby eclipsing binary, leaving only a few possible new identifications. With 926 detached eclipsing binaries identified in the Slawson et al. (2011) catalog as having periods less than 15 days, this would suggest the *Kepler* eclipsing binary catalog has identified almost all eclipsing binaries with periods less than 15 days.

Planet Hunters is a novel and complementary technique to traditional planet transit methods. The previous discovery of new planet candidates highlighted in Lintott et al. (2012) and

Fischer et al. (2012) and the high detection efficiency for $4 R_{\oplus}$ and larger planets shows the efficacy of visual review of light curves for detecting large transiting planets. With a detection efficiency greater than 85% for $4R_{\oplus}$ and larger planets orbiting on periods less than 15 days, it is likely Planet Hunters can easily detect these large planets even for single transits present in the 30-day light curve sections presented on the website. With the completion of Quarter 1, Quarters 2-5, each spanning approximately 90 days, have been added to Planet Hunters once publicly released, extending the observational baseline to ~ 400 days, and classification of these light curves is currently underway. With the public release of Quarters 1-6, Planet Hunters will be able to examine the abundance of single transit events that do not repeat and would not be identified by TPS as well as search for additional transit events that may have been missed from longer period planets with repeating transits in Q1-Q6. However, transits due to planets significantly smaller than $2 R_{\oplus}$ will likely remain difficult to detect; particularly Earth-sized planets will be nearly impossible to identify by visual inspection with Planet Hunters due to the low signal to noise ratio of the individual transits. Improved user weighting schemes particularly promoting users who are more adept at identifying smaller radii planets may improve the detection efficiency at $2-3 R_{\oplus}$ in the future, but the majority of small rocky planet discoveries will likely remain in the realm of the traditional transit detection methods. Human review may have a niche and be particularly valuable for systems which are unusual, such as circumbinary planets, or difficult because the presence of Transit Timing Variations (TTVs) prevents detection by automated routines which look for periodic repeats of transit features. García-Melendo & López-Morales (2011) highlight the difficulties such routines have with significant TTVs, and an application of the algorithm described here, which identifies individual transits rather than a periodic signal, to further releases of *Kepler* data may be able to catch them.

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Facilities: Kepler

A. Appendix: Potential Biases in Candidate Selection and Detection Efficiency

It is important to consider the potential biases in our analysis and determine how they may impact our candidate selection and user behavior. In this section, we discuss the effect of the interface upgrades and modifications on user classifications. Additionally we explore the potential biases that may effect the calculated synthetic detection efficiency.

The entirety of the simulations and a subset of the real Q1 light curves, have been screened, since 2011 Feb 1, after the interface upgrade enabling volunteers to draw transit boxes directly on the displayed light curve. With classifiers now drawing their own transit boxes rather than being given a predefined box size, the frequency of boxes drawn and the typical transit box width and height likely changed. We do not place a stringent requirement on the number of transits identified or the transit width in the selection criteria to identify candidates. Thus, there should be little effect on our results. We only use the box width as a criteria during the weighting of the simulations, and since all the simulations were viewed in the updated interface there is no bias in the weighting scheme and the impact on candidate selection should be minimal.

The subset of Q1 light curves and the simulations reviewed after the completion of the majority of Q1 data were interspersed with Q2 light curves which are scaled to a slightly different value and appear visibly different from the Q1 light curves. In particular, the Q2 light curves contain gaps due to missing data whereas Q1 is continuous for a majority of the *Kepler* targets. This makes the Q1 data and simulations possibly recognizable such that when a user views a light curve without a gap he or she assumes the light curve is a simulation and is being tested therefore behaving differently than when the same user classifies real *Kepler* light curves, i.e. the ‘Hawthorne effect’ (Mayo 1933; Adair, Sharpe & Huynh 1989). For example, the classifier may mark more transit

boxes on features that the user is less certain about because he or she wants to correctly identify the ‘simulated’ transits, and the simulations would then not reflect an accurate picture of the typical behavior of Planet Hunters volunteers. Most classifiers come to the Planet Hunters interface and classify a handful of light curves before leaving (see Figure 4). Therefore most of the classifiers at any given time on the Planet Hunters classification interface will be unaware of there being a difference between the two sets of light curves and what that significance is. Their responses will be the same whether they are classifying a synthetic light curve, Q1 light curve, or Q2 light curve. Although a small subset of users who have examined many tens of light curves may have noticed the pattern, these users remain a small fraction of the entire Q1 classifications. Only 13% of those users who classified a synthetic light curve classified more than 10 simulations. In addition the simulations and the remaining Q1 light curves were both shown at the same rate. 1 in 5 light curves served was either a Q1 or synthetic. Although the user might be able to identify the quarter of origin, they could not be certain if the light curve presented was a simulation or real data. We believe this effect is negligible for the majority of our synthetic light curve classifications, and that they reflect the typical behavior of Planet Hunters classifiers.

We also note that simulations were added to the Planet Hunters interface after 2011 May. The simulations were classified by a different set of users than were classifying the bulk of Q1. 34% of synthetic classifiers never examined a Q1 light curve. In order to estimate a detection efficiency, we make the assumption that behavior between the two sets of classifiers is the same. Although there may be some evolution of the classifier population as a subset continue to classify curves and improve their ability to identify transits, the nature of the site, is such there is always new users who are classifying light curves. On average a visitor spends only 18 minutes on the Planet Hunters site. These new classifiers would be just as likely to review a simulation and have the same level of expertise as the original set of Q1 classifiers. Therefore, we feel they the synthetic classifiers serve as a representative sampling of the skill set and ability of the typical Planet Hunters classifiers, 154 of the 330 single planet KOIs with periods less than 15 days and $2-15 R_{\oplus}$ were completed before the upgrade and were shown when the majority of the Q1 data was present in the classification interface. We can use classifications as an independent test of our estimated synthetic detection efficiency. We find a similar recovery rate from these KOIs as for the injected transit light curves and full short period planet KOI sample. Therefore, we feel they the synthetic classifiers serve as a representative sampling of the skill set and ability of the typical Planet Hunters classifiers, and our detection efficiency calculated from the classifications of the synthetic light curves is appropriate for the entire Planet Hunters classifications.

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Planet Radii (R_{\oplus})	Orbital Period (days)					
	$0.5 \leq P < 2$	$2 \leq P < 4$	$4 \leq P < 6$	$6 \leq P < 8$	$8 \leq P < 10$	$10 \leq P < 15$
$2 \leq R < 3$	300	300	300	299	300	300
$3 \leq R < 4$	199	200	200	199	200	200
$4 \leq R < 5$	100	100	100	100	100	200
$5 \leq R < 6$	100	100	100	100	100	198
$6 \leq R < 7$	100	100	100	100	100	200
$7 \leq R < 10$	100	100	100	100	100	200
$10 \leq R < 15$	100	100	100	99	100	200

Table 1: Distribution of synthetic light curves generated

	Remaining Light Curves	
	Real	Simulations
All	156,092	6494
Transit Score Threshold	5508	4978
Single Transit Removal	4938	4974
Light Curve Variability Cut	3404	4974
Round 2 Review	1220	4685
Removing Known False Positives*	379	–
Removing Known KOIs	75	–
Science Team Inspection	7	–

Table 2: Remaining light curves at each stage of the planet candidate selection process for both the Q1 *Kepler* light curves and generated simulated light curves. *False positives included eclipsing binaries and other false positives identified in Borucki et al. (2011b), Slawson et al. (2011), Prša et al. (2011) and Fischer et al. (2012).

Variability class	#	fraction of full population	fraction of variable population
unclassified	849	0.005	0
quiet	102388	0.656	0
variable	52855	0.339	1
unclassified variable	4260	0.027	0.081
regular variable	7683	0.049	0.145
pulsating variable	25820	0.165	0.489
irregular variable	15092	0.098	0.285

Table 3: Break down of light curve variability in the Q1 light curves based on Planet Hunters classifications

	≤ 16 mag	≤ 14 mag
Ciardi et al. (2011)	35.2%	60.8%
This work	32.0%	49.6%

Table 4: Variability frequencies from Ciardi et al. (2011) compared to that derived by Planet Hunters classifications. We quote the fraction of variable light curves from this work for the subset of light curves with viable variability assessments and had temperatures and radii estimated in the KIC (Brown et al. 2011)

Variability class	#	fraction of full population	fraction of variable population
unclassified	111	0.022	0
quiet	1835	0.372	0
variable	2992	0.606	1
unclassified variable	386	0.078	0.129
regular variable	528	0.107	0.176
pulsating variable	1776	0.360	0.594
irregular variable	302	0.061	0.101

Table 5: Break down of light curve variability in the Q1 planet candidate light curves based on Planet Hunters classifications

Single Event or Data Glitch or No Transits							
2161731	2557556	2569618	2992573	4261757	4846409	5437945	
6117719	6186029	6603956	7023575	7175826	7457184	8297860	8584610
8719324	8911948	9364562	9589420	10428163	11282332	11913545	12455830
Two or More Transit-like Features and No Consecutive Repeats in Q2+ Light Curves							
3337061	3937978	4552152	4739167	5212286	5561743	6032517	6219684
7449421	7685675	7989590	8104436	8345153	8625821	9154469	9692612
10467170	11516241						
Alternating Transit Depth Changes or Light Curve Contaminated by Eclipsing Binary							
2997178	3098197	3459199	3858879	3858917	4678875	5303346	5467124
5471606	6032517	6045250	6182849	6543683	6612327	7877818	8095110
8104030	9529744	9851142	10031907	10092312	10275880	10294613	10735575
11200767	11607176	12691412					
Remaining Short Period Planet Candidates							
5511081	6616218	8240797	9729691	10905746	11017901	11551692	

Table 6: Outcome of Science Team Review- KIC 10905746 was previously identified by Fischer et al. (2012). KIC 5511081, 6616218, 8240797, 9729691, 10905746, 11017901, 11551692 have been identified in upgrades to the Kepler detection pipelines and are to be included in the next planet candidate release (Batalha 2012 personal communication, Batalha et al. 2012). KIC 5511081 was also identified by Planet Hunters in a preliminary search of Q2 observations as reported by Lintott et al. (2012). KIC 6186029 is a previously known RR Lyrae star Benkő et al. (2010).

Planet Radii (R_{\oplus})	Orbital Period (days)					
	$0.5 \leq P < 2$	$2 \leq P < 4$	$4 \leq P < 6$	$6 \leq P < 8$	$8 \leq P < 10$	$10 \leq P < 15$
$2 \leq R < 3$	123/300	120/300	121/300	129/299	121/300	115/300
$3 \leq R < 4$	153/199	150/200	148/200	157/199	136/200	152/200
$4 \leq R < 5$	92/100	85/100	79/100	88/100	82/100	165/200
$5 \leq R < 6$	95/100	90/100	78/100	86/100	84/100	165/198
$6 \leq R < 7$	97/100	99/100	84/100	87/100	91/100	174/200
$7 \leq R < 10$	94/100	85/100	88/100	87/100	93/100	174/200
$10 \leq R < 15$	98/100	88/100	86/100	88/99	93/100	176/200

Table 7: Recovery frequency of simulated light curves

Planet Radii (R_{\oplus})	Orbital Period (days)					
	$0.5 \leq P < 2$	$2 \leq P < 4$	$4 \leq P < 6$	$6 \leq P < 8$	$8 \leq P < 10$	$10 \leq P < 15$
$2 \leq R < 3$	1/7	3/18	8/30	3/25	4/21	10/43
$3 \leq R < 4$	0/ 1	5/6	7/10	3/5	6/11	8/14
$4 \leq R < 5$	1/2	6/9	1/3	1/3	2/2	7/9
$5 \leq R < 6$	1/3	2/3	2/2	3/3	2/3	2/3
$6 \leq R < 7$	2/2	3/3	4/5	2/2	1/1	1/2
$7 \leq R < 10$	1/4	13/14	8/9	4/5	3/3	5/6
$10 \leq R < 15$	5/7	13/14	7/7	3/3	2/3	1/4

Table 8: Recovery frequency of *Kepler* planet candidates (Borucki et al. 2011b) with periods between 0.5 and 15 days and radii between 2 and 15 R_{\oplus}

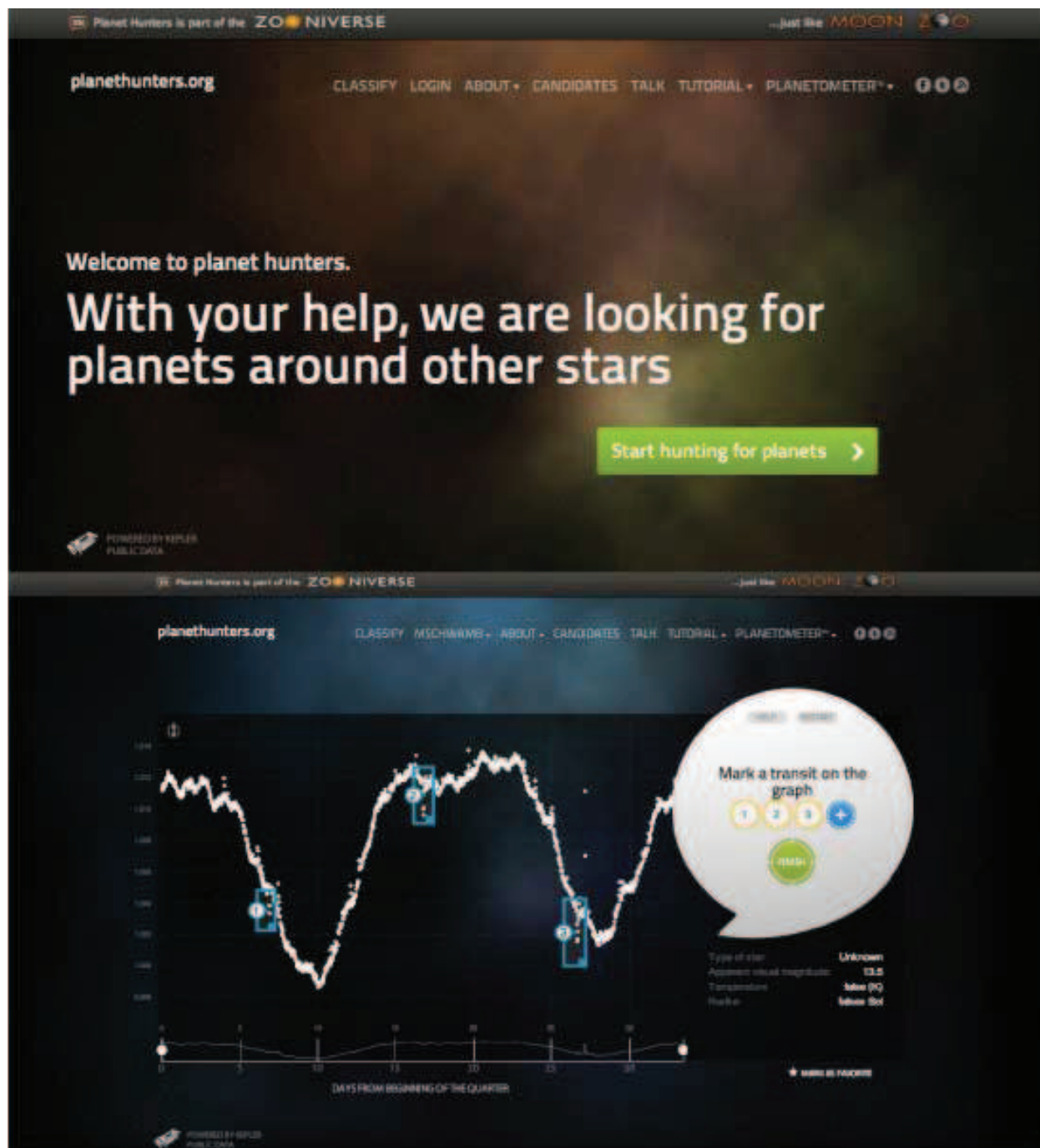


Fig. 1.— Front page (top) and main classification interface (below) of the Planet Hunters website.

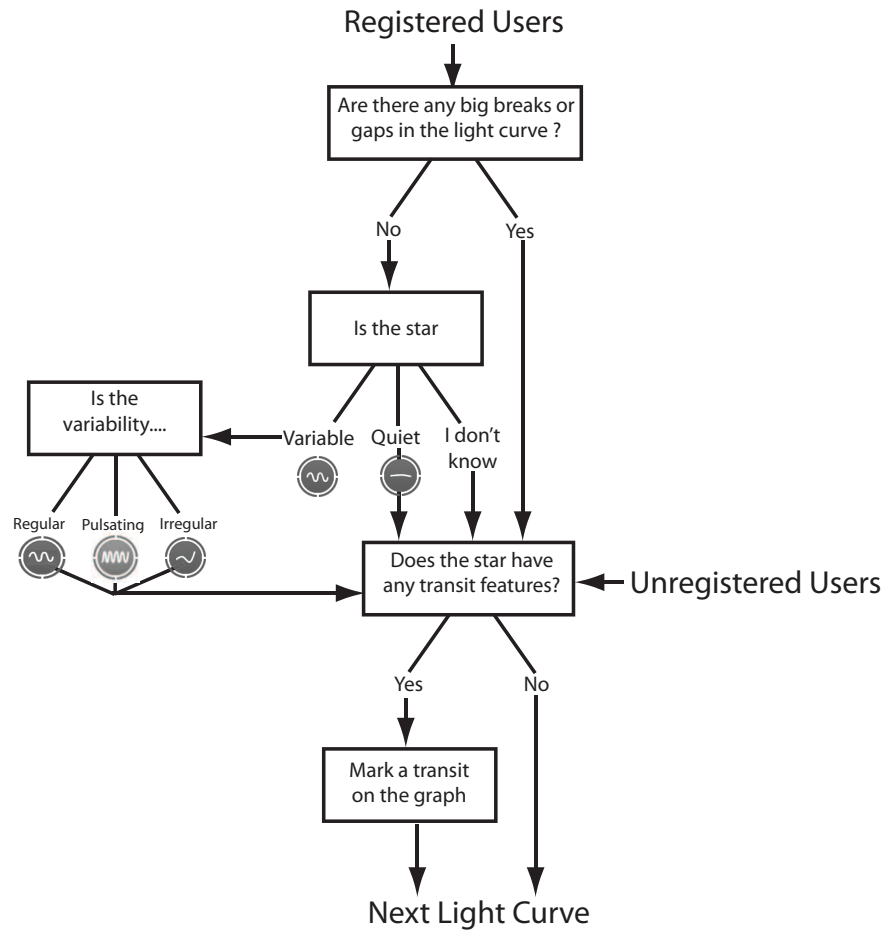


Fig. 2.— The decision tree that a Planet Hunters classifier is presented with when reviewing a light curve.

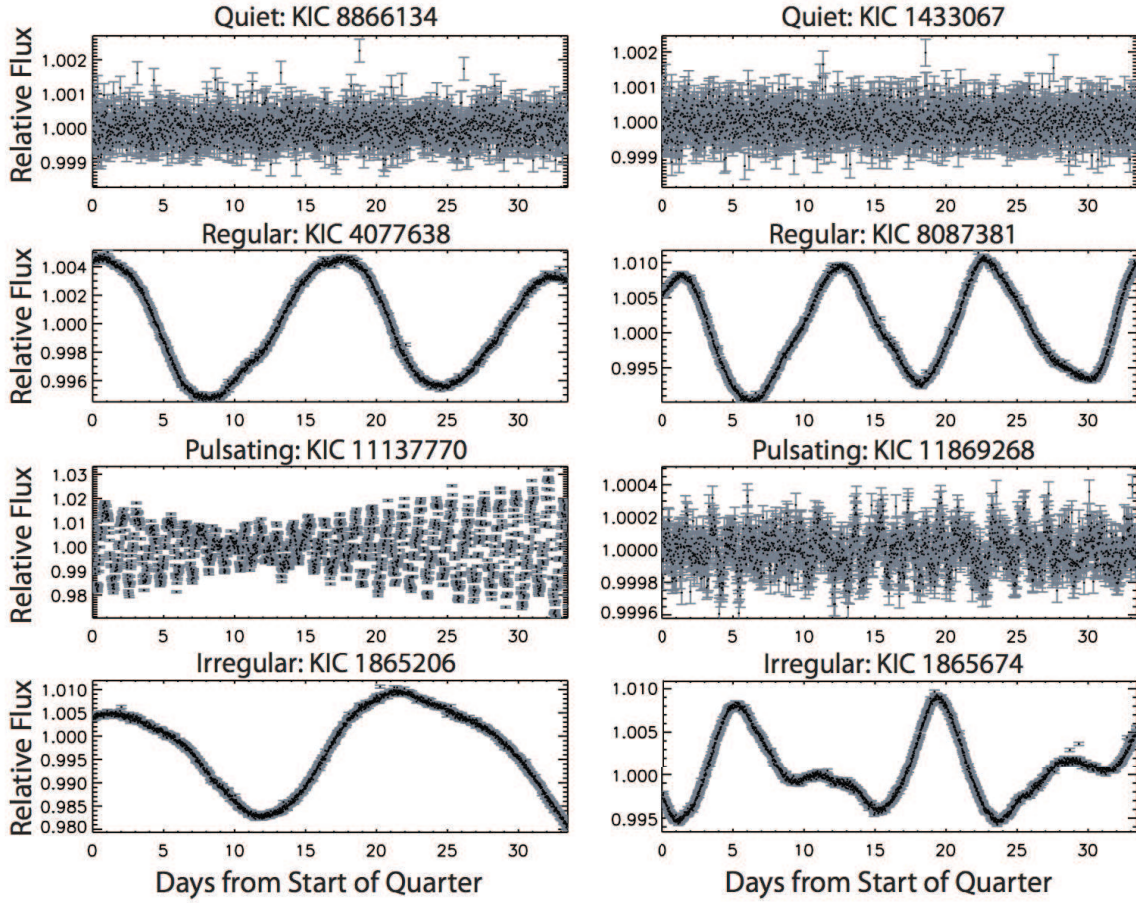


Fig. 3.— Examples light curves in each class. Reported error bars are overplotted in gray. For each light curve presented 75% or greater of the classifications selected the specified type.

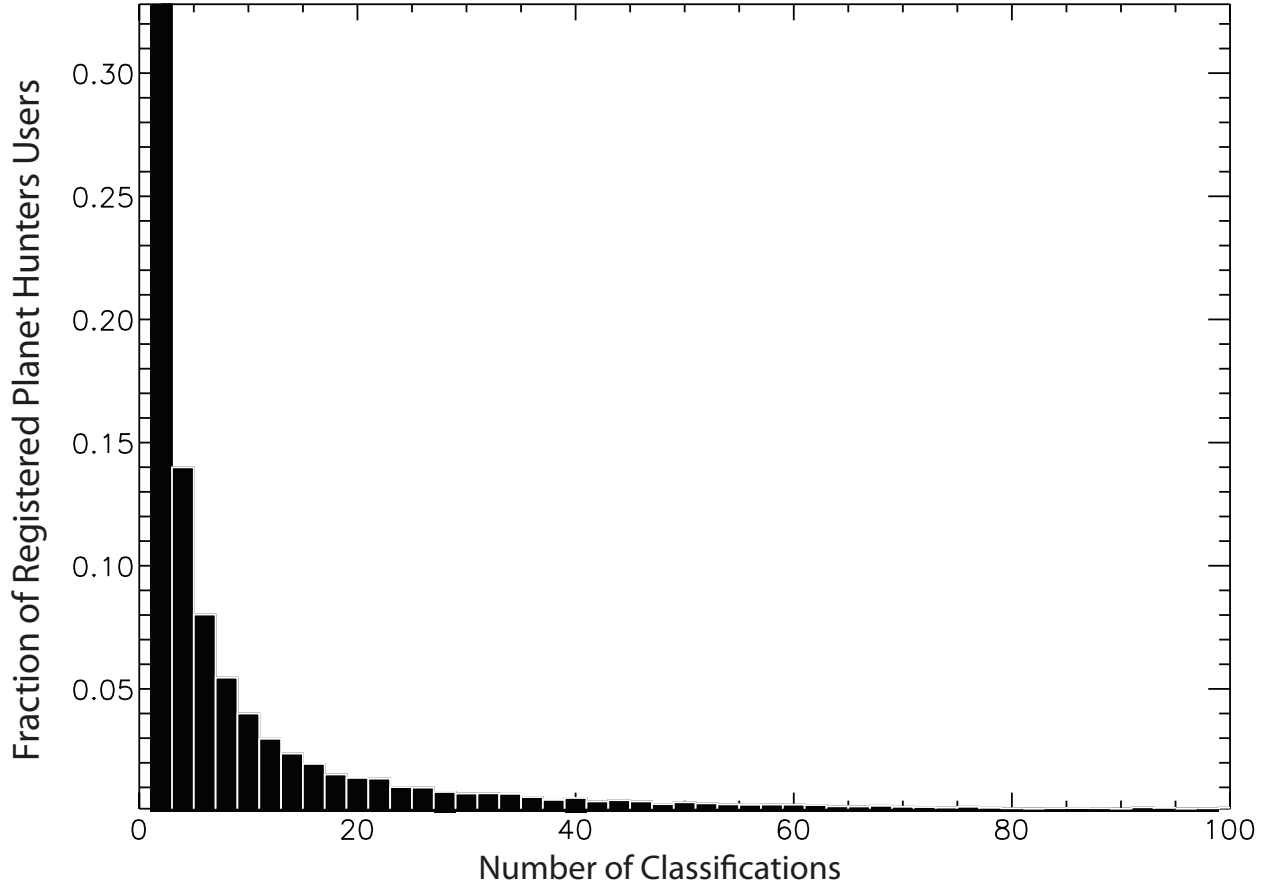


Fig. 4.— Distribution of classifications used in this analysis per registered Planet Hunters user with a bin size of 2. The plotted distribution is truncated at 100 classifications for resolution. Only 10% of all registered volunteers make more than 100 classifications.

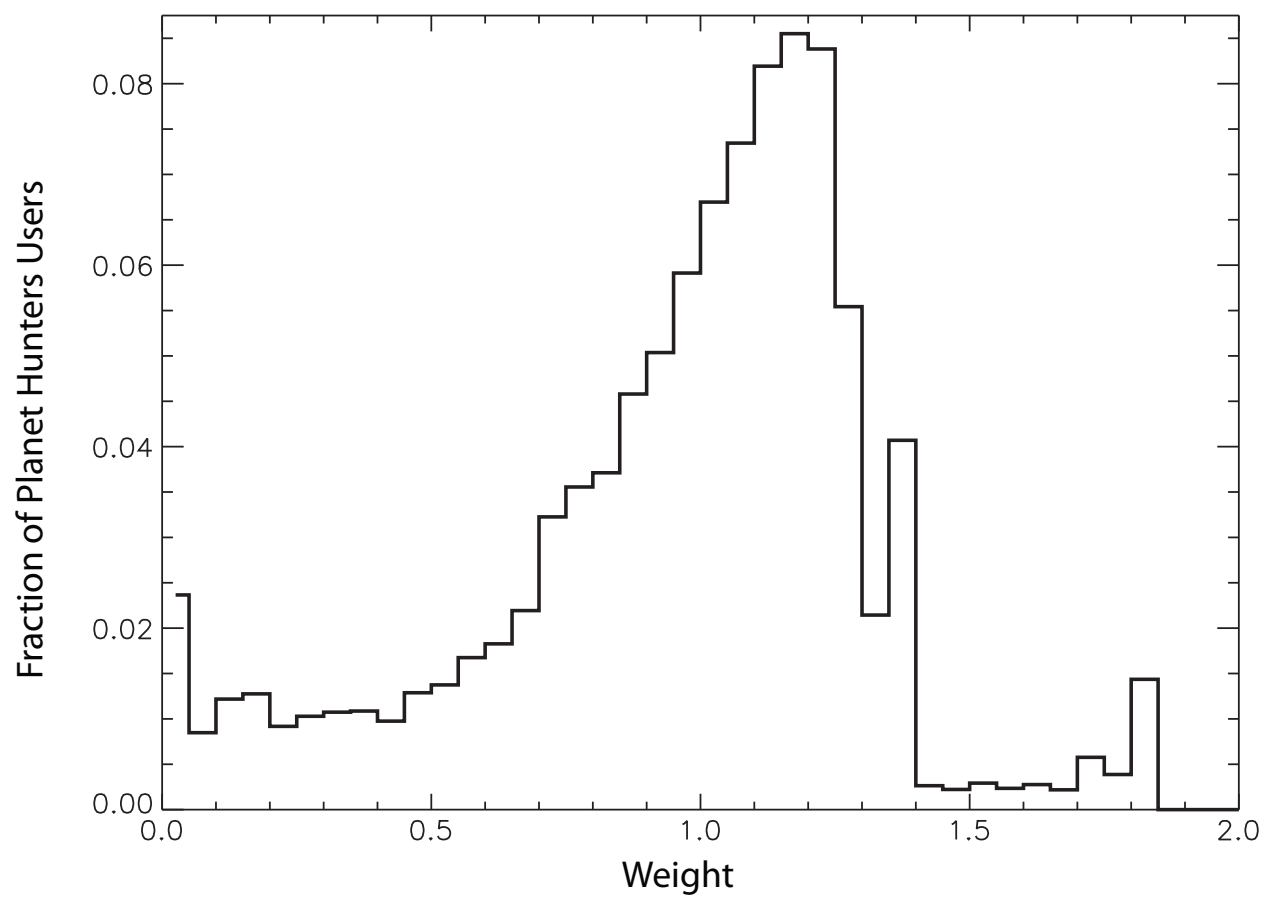


Fig. 5.— Distribution of Q1 Planet Hunters user weights binned in 0.5 bins.

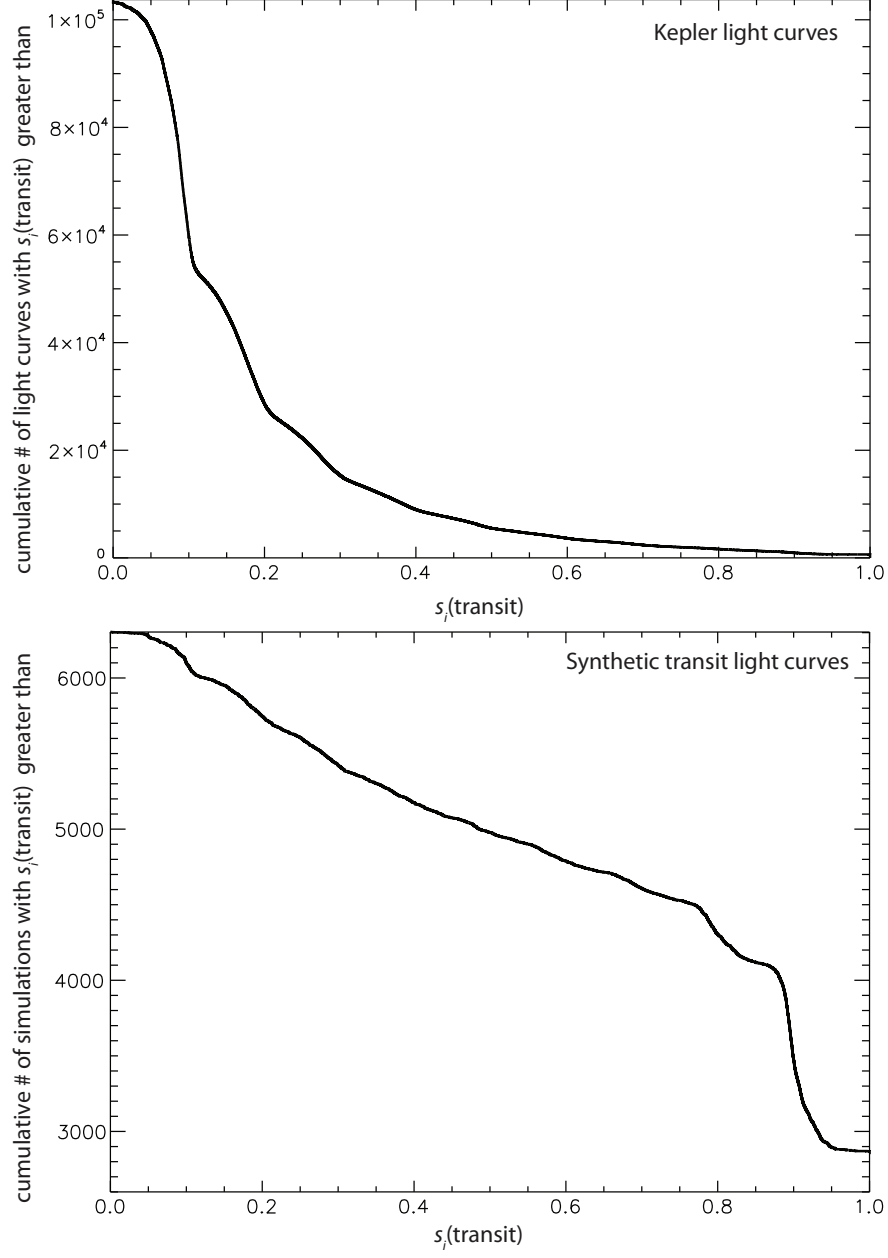


Fig. 6.— Cumulative distribution of transit scores for the Q1 *Kepler* light curves (top) and simulations (bottom).

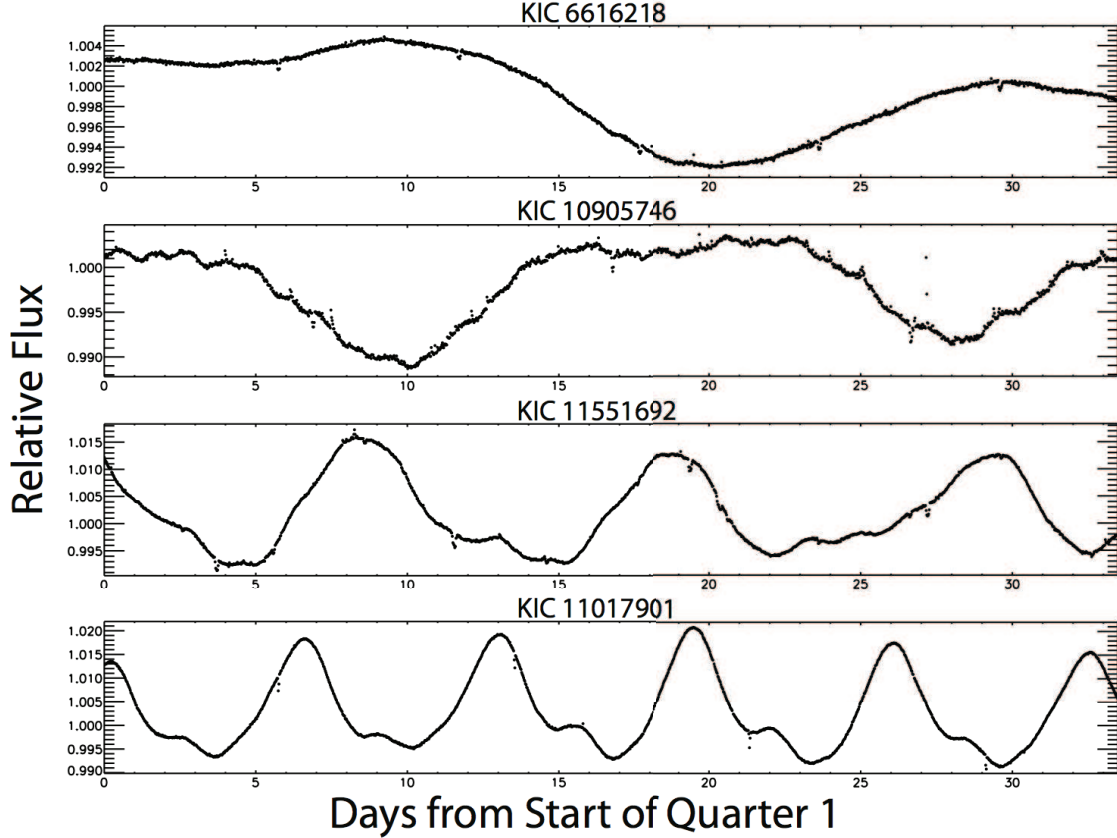


Fig. 7.— Short period candidate light curves remaining after Round 2 Review and visual inspection. KIC 10905746 previously identified in Fischer et al 2012 and the remaining three candidates. All light curves were identified in later versions of the Kepler pipeline as KOIs in the latest KOI release (Batalha et al. 2012). KIC 11551692 and 6616218 have been subsequently identified by the *Kepler* team as multiplanet systems with at least one $\geq 1.9R_{\oplus}$ planet candidate orbiting the host star in less than 15 days (Batalha 2012 -personal communication, Batalha et al. 2012). The light curves have been normalized and a linear trend has been removed.

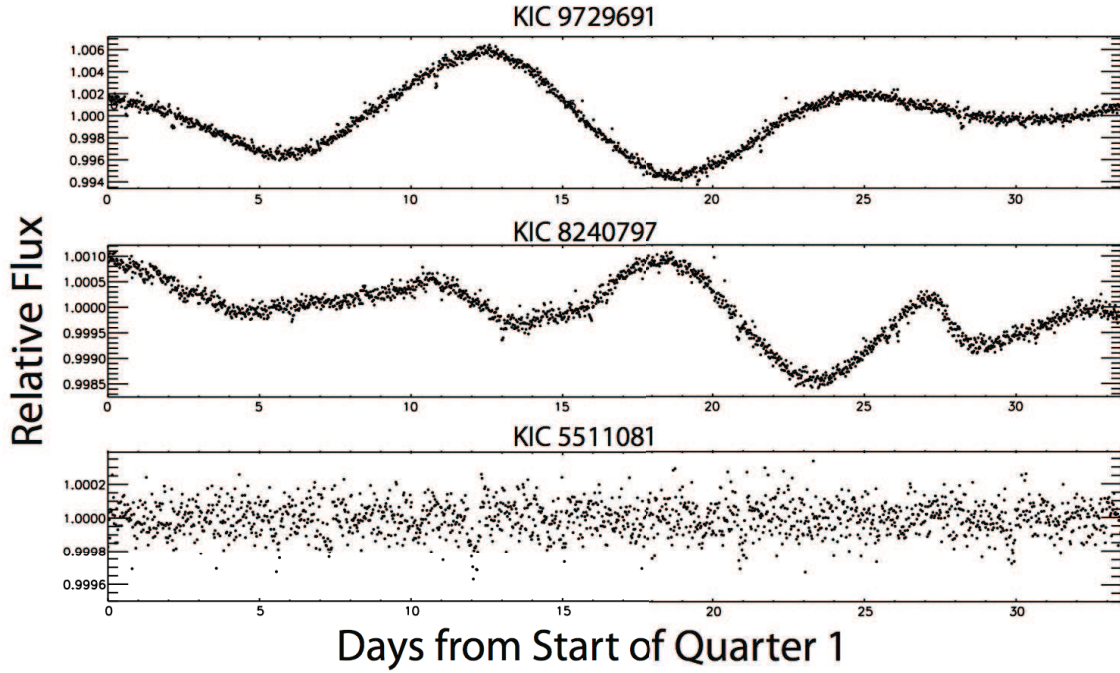


Fig. 8.— Short period candidate light curves remaining after Round 2 Review and visual inspection continued. All presented light curves were subsequently identified by the *Kepler* team as multiplanet systems with at least one $\geq 1.9R_{\oplus}$ planet candidate orbiting the host star in less than 15 days (Batalha et al. 2012). KIC 5511081 was also identified by Planet Hunters in a preliminary search of Q2 observations as reported by Lintott et al. (2012).

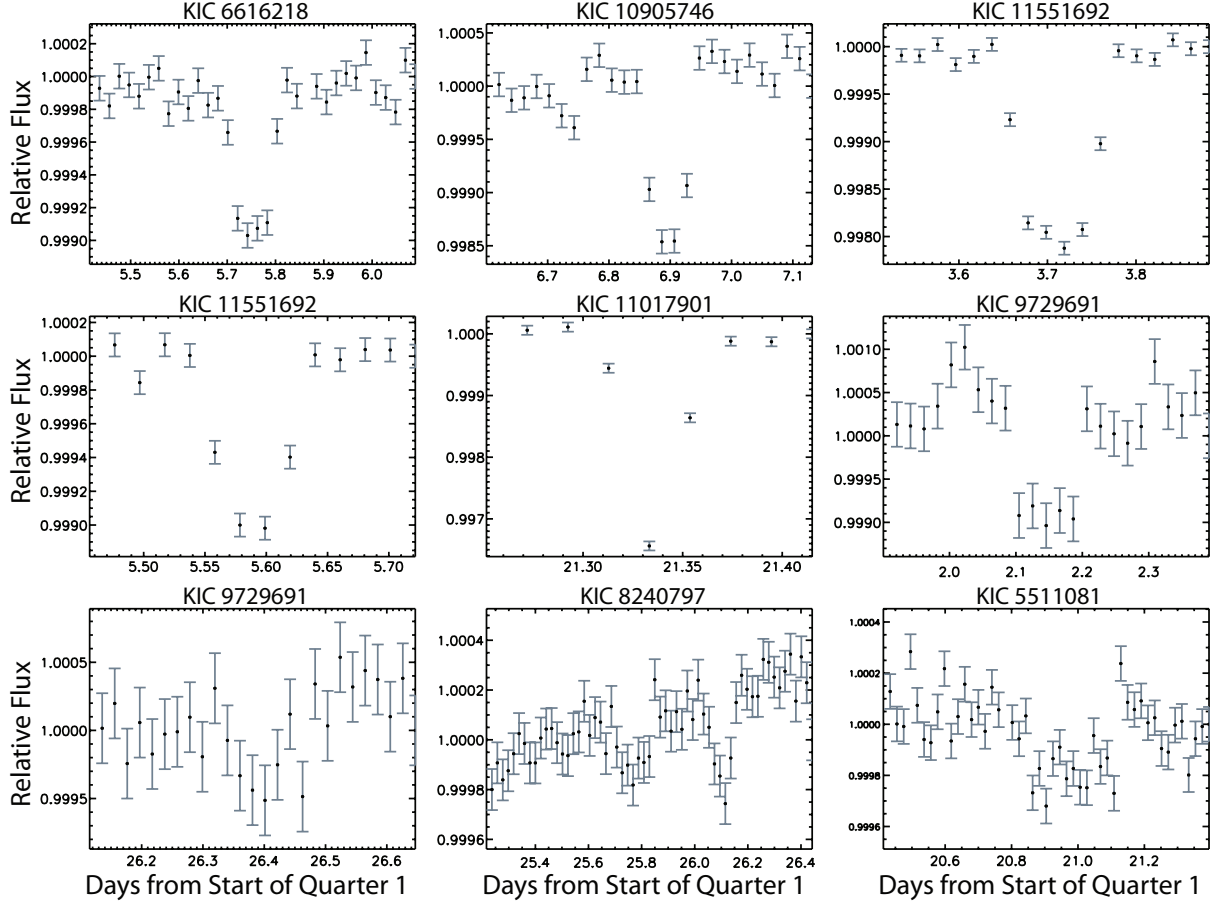


Fig. 9.— Zoom-in of selected transits for each set of transit identified visible in short period candidate light curves remaining after Round 2 review and visual inspection. Visually the science team could identify two separate sets of repeating transits in the multi-planet KIC 8240797, 9729691, and 11551692 based on the user drawn boxes. We note that the snapshot of KIC 8240797 contains two independent transit events.

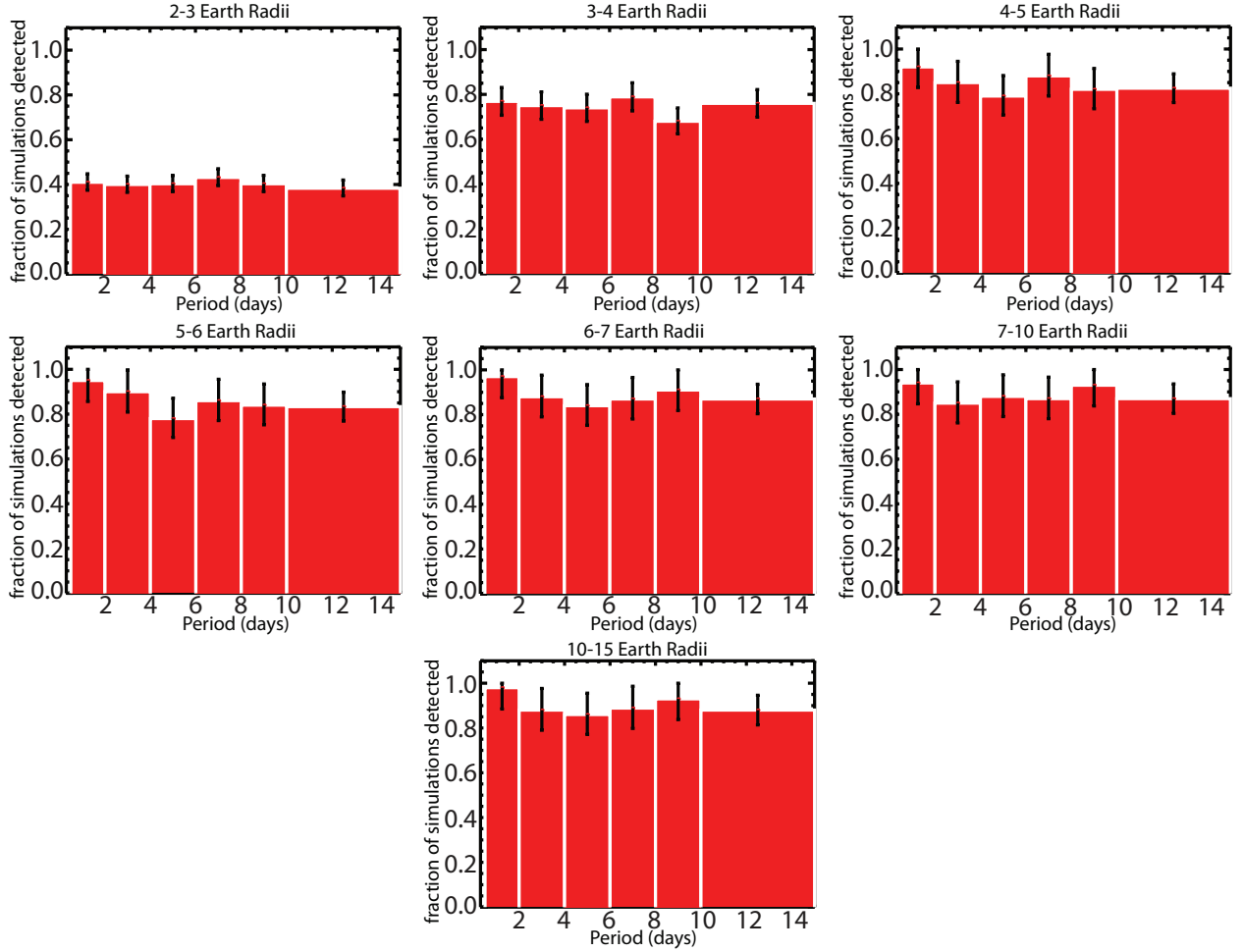


Fig. 10.— Efficiency recovery rate for simulated planet transits with orbital periods between 0.5 and 15 days and radii between 2 and 15 R_{\oplus} . Error bars are taken as the Poissonian 68% uncertainty, as prescribed by Kraft et al. (1991), for the value in each radii/period bin.

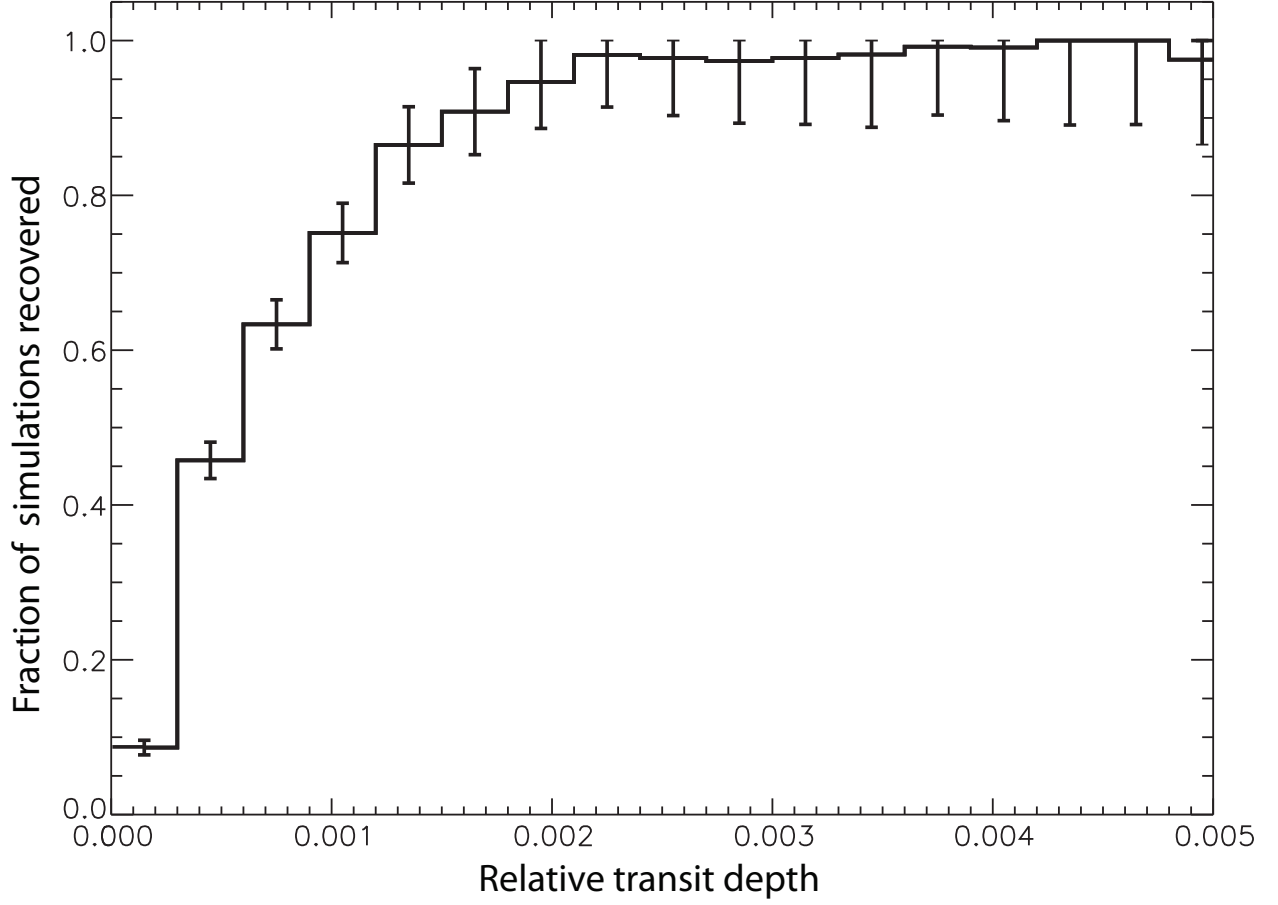


Fig. 11.— Recovery rate for simulated planet light curves for transits with depths less than 0.005, with orbital periods between 0.5 and 15 days and radii between 2 and 15 R_{\oplus} , as a function of relative transit depth binned with a bin size of 3×10^{-4} . Error bars are taken as the Poissonian 68% uncertainty for the value in each bin, as prescribed by Kraft et al. (1991).

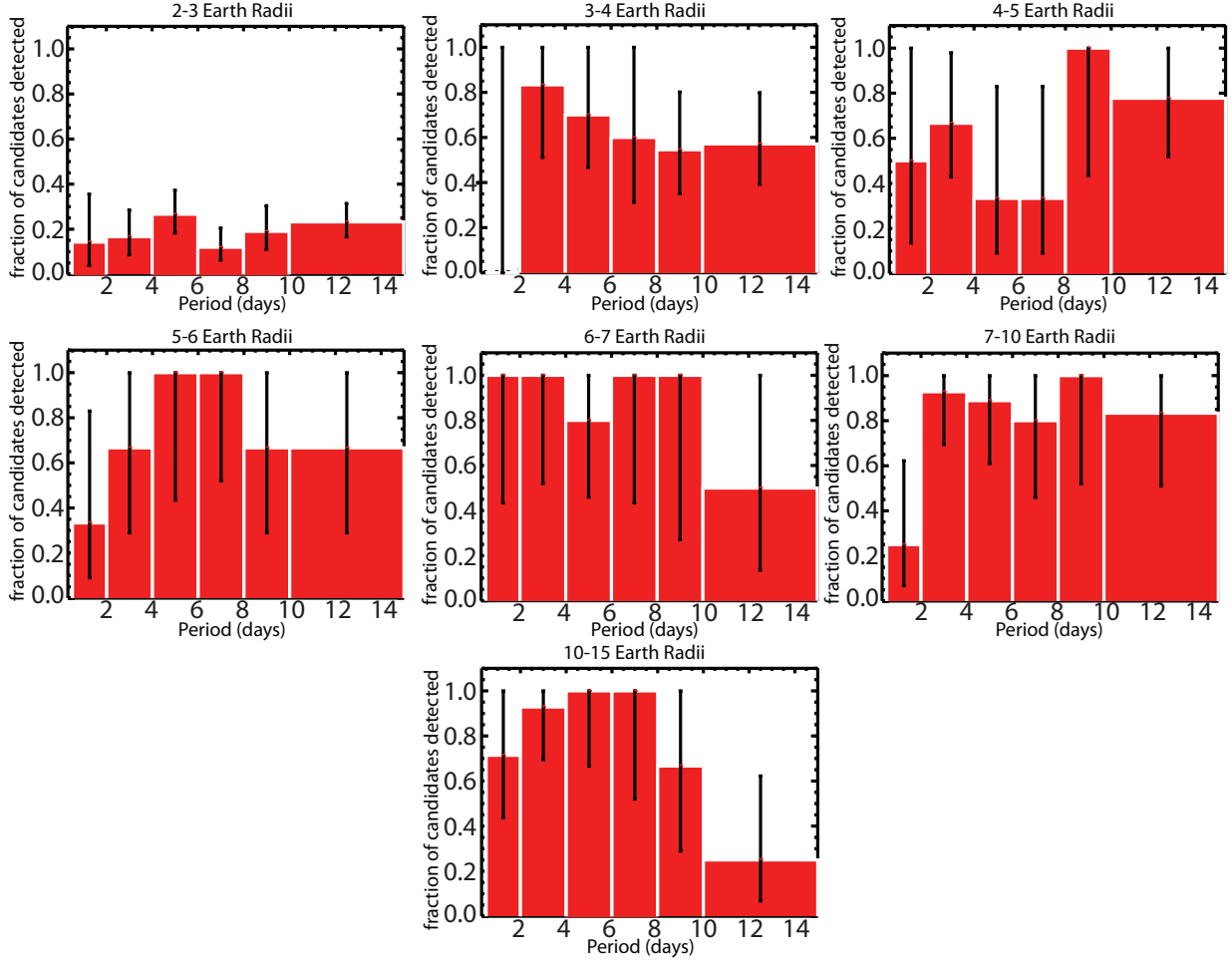


Fig. 12.— Recovery frequency of *Kepler* planet candidates (Borucki et al. 2011b) with orbital periods between 0.5 and 15 days and radii between 2 and 15 R_{\oplus} . Error bars are taken as the Poissonian 68% uncertainty (as prescribed by Kraft et al. (1991)) for the value in each radii/period bin.

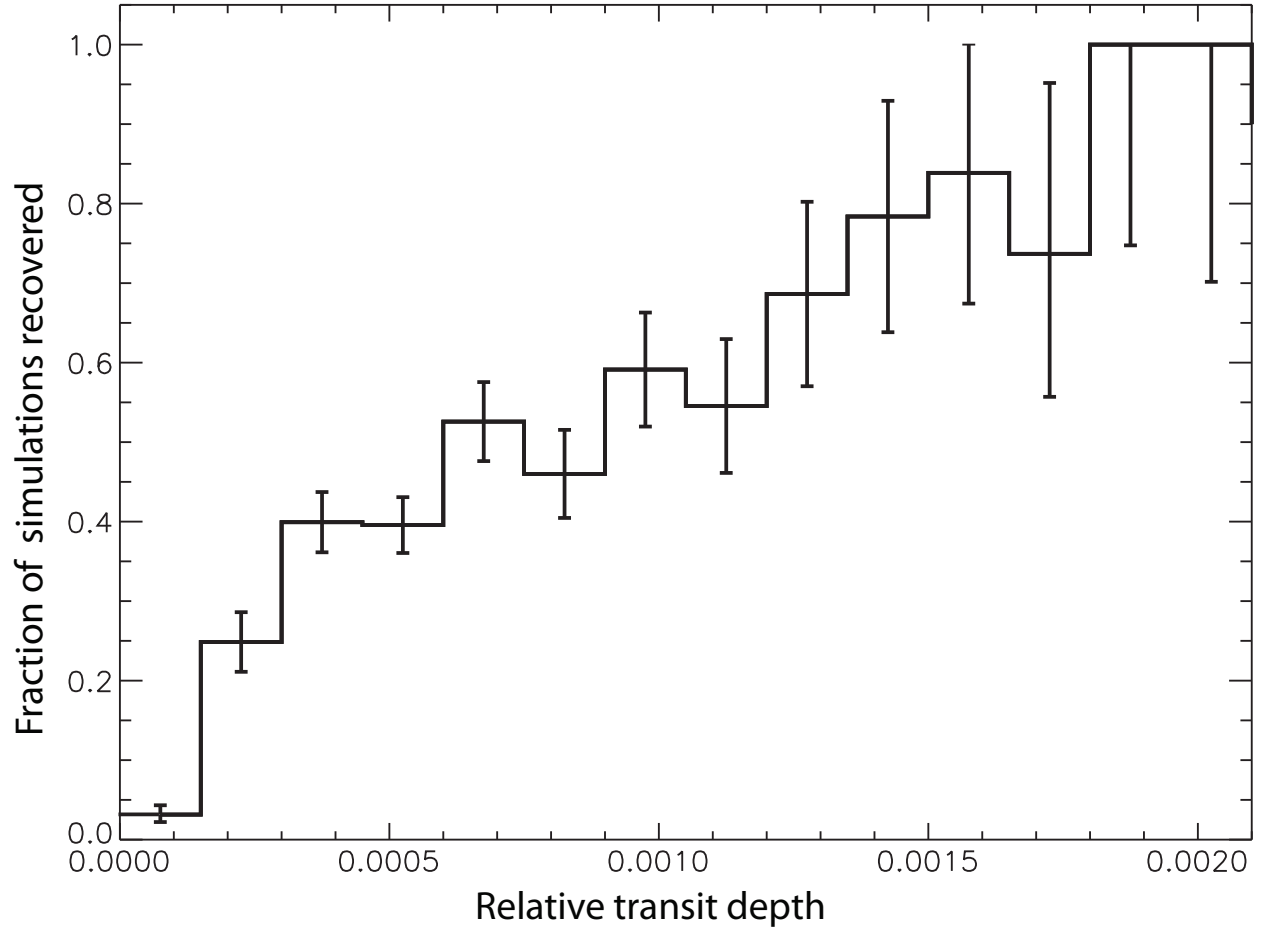


Fig. 13.— Recovery efficiency as a function of relative depth for 2-3 R_{\oplus} simulations. For resolution the plot is truncated at .002. Error bars are taken as the Poissonian 68% uncertainty, as prescribed by Kraft et al. (1991), for the value in each bin.